

DE BOW'S REVIEW.

APRIL, 1857.

SUPPLY AND CONSUMPTION OF COTTON, PRESENT AND PROSPECTIVE.

SUPPLY.—The cotton trade never exhibited a more peculiar condition than at the close of the year 1856. The consumption, under adverse circumstances, such as the high price of money in Europe and the advanced prices of the raw material, not only suffered no diminution, but generally increased. The crop of 1856-'57 has fallen short from 10 to 15 per cent. as compared with that of the previous year. An obscurity, however, still rests on this branch of the inquiry, which it is difficult to remove. The actual extent of the crop of 1855-'56 may be approximately estimated, the estimate depending on the quantity retained in the interior owing to the low rivers in 1854-'55. According to the quantity thus retained of the crop of that year, would be the extent of the *actual* crop of 1855-'56. Some figure must be assumed as the basis of calculation.

The Hon. John McQueen, member of Congress from South Carolina, published on the 22d of last December, a statement in relation to the probable supply. It assumed a semi-official character, as the result of inquiries addressed to several members of Congress from the cotton-growing districts. This inquiry was mainly directed to two points: 1st. The probable yield of the crop of 1856-'57. 2d. The probable extension of the cultivation in their States respectively within the last year. But before entering on these points, Mr. McQueen expresses the opinion that from 200,000 to 250,000 bales of the crop of 1854-'55 were thrown into market between the 1st of September, 1855, and 1st September, 1856. On the assumption that at least 200,000 bales of the receipts of 1855-'56 were in reality a portion of the crop of 1854-'55, he founds his estimate of the

crop of 1856-'57. In this, we think, he is rather within than without the limits of probability. Opinions appear to incline to the estimate of 250,000 bales, as retained that year in the interior. Taking this for granted, as the estimated crop of 1854-'55 was 2,847,339 bales, if we deduct 250,000 bales from the receipts of 1855-'56, (3,527,845,) and add them to the crop of 1854-'55, (2,847,339,) the crop of that year should be computed at 3,007,339 bales, while that of 1855-'56 should be stated at 3,277,845, which gives a trifle above five per cent. increase on the previous year. This was nearly the rate of increase from 1851 to 1854, as will be seen on referring to the tables at the conclusion of these remarks.

We should then take as a point of departure 3,277,845 bales, as the *actual* crop of 1855-'56. If we assume the same rate of increase as for the three years above named, five per cent., the result would have shown, if there had been no deficiency from casualties, a crop of 3,441,737 bales. Mr. McQueen gives for increase from extended cultivation, 225,000 bales, which would be at the rate of seven per cent. nearly. But the turning point here is the extent of the deficiency from frost, storms, &c. Here we are on the wide sea of conjecture, without other guide than verbal reports, which, however accurate within the field of observation to which they apply, cannot embrace a region of country so extensive as is included in the cotton culture. Mr. McQueen's conclusion after as full an investigation as he was able to make, was that the deficiency will be 25 per cent. on the crop of 1855-'56. This would give a crop for 1856-'57 of 2,645,787. As high prices and full rivers will bring into the shipping ports nearly every bale before the end of March that has been made, we shall be able to ascertain with almost assured certainty the result at that period.

In the interval as some guide to a conclusion, which must necessarily be only an approximation, the receipts down to the present time cannot be omitted as an element in the calculation. The receipts at all the ports on the 13th of February, amounted to 2,100,155, being upwards of two-thirds on a crop of 3,000,000 bales, and a few thousand bales over the receipts to the same date of 1855-'56. This is a larger excess, comparatively speaking, than has been exhibited in the cotton trade within the period included in the comparison. But this excess being explained from the high comparative prices and increased facilities of transportation, ceases, of course, to be a criterion of the extent of the crop, in the degree that these circumstances have operated to give accelerated force to the desire of placing the staple as rapidly as possible in the ports of exportation. As an evidence that the receipts are not an accurate measure of the extent of the crop, we

would observe that during both scant and abundant crops, the receipts have been nearly as proportionally large. In 1846-'47, (crop 1,778,000 bales,) in 1849-'50, (crop 2,096,000,) and in 1852-'53, (crop 3,260,000,) upwards of 50 per cent. had been received at the end of January. So that the excess of receipts this, over ordinary years, cannot be viewed unless in connection with prices relatively higher than for some years past, and with the additional means of transit, by the extension of railroads which have been developed within the past year, giving a more forcible impetus to the ordinary motives for hurrying the crop into market. The receipts after the middle of February will, in all probability, exhibit a far less proportion of the entire crop than any other year in the history of the cotton trade.

According then to the mode of calculation we have assumed, the crop of 1856-'57 should be estimated at an increase of 5 per cent. on what, but for casualties, would have been the crop of this year, supposing that there would at the close of the season be a very small proportion of it left in the interior. If, therefore, the crop be assumed at 3,441,737, deducting what was probably a part of the crop of 1854-'55, and which appeared in the receipts of 1855-'56, a crop of 3,000,000 would exhibit a deficiency of 14 per cent. or a crop of 3,100,000 bales, 10 per cent. on the crop of 1855-'56.

CONSUMPTION.—There are only political or commercial causes to impede consumption. In addition to these there are natural causes to obstruct the growth. Wars, revolutions, scarcity of money or of food, check consumption. Storms, frosts, low rivers, limit the supply. Taking a long series of years, we believe the one class of causes is as operative in checking the consumption, as the other is in restraining the growth, or limiting the supply. The era is one of political tranquility in all the more civilized portions of the globe. The domain of commerce is daily widening. Free trade, wherever it has penetrated, has unfettered enterprise. The wants of men increase with their wealth. The consumption of cotton goods, notwithstanding the temporary check to it from high prices, promises to be largely progressive. We find that a war of three years duration in Europe has not had a contrary effect, except locally and partially. The general increase between 1848-'51, was 6,268-100, and between 1851-'54 6,174-100 per cent. per annum. Extending our view to 1855-'56, we perceive about the same rate of increase. In what ratio the consumption is to continue, it would be difficult to estimate, should prices reach a higher point than 7d. to 8d., where it is ordinarily checked. Neither can we say that this limit will not be enlarged under the influence of a highly prosperous commerce, and advancing

money prices, generally, from the increasing abundance of the precious metals.

As an indication of the constantly progressive consumption, we have before us the British circulars down to the 23d January, showing the quantities taken by the English spinners for 1856. The British consumption has reached the large aggregate for that year of 2,200,000 bales. The stocks at Liverpool had been reduced at that date to 328,000 bales. It was estimated that the spinners had on hand from 80,000 to 100,000 bales. Supposing the British consumption to continue at the same rate to the end of this year as for the year 1856, (42,000 bales weekly,) there will scarcely remain more than a few hundred bales at the end of the season for a stock which has never been below 300,000 bales at any period in the history of this trade. But if the English consumption has thus outrun the supply, the continental consumption has exhibited a still more remarkable extension. The exports of Great Britain to the continent have been large, being 368,700 against 316,900 in 1855; but the remarkable feature this year has been the large export *direct* from the United States to the continent. This shows with what rapidity the cotton manufacture is extending throughout various parts of Europe, where only a few years ago it had not penetrated, from the absence of both skill and capital. A great portion of this large export has been to Russia, which is no doubt partly attributable to the exhaustion of stock and the difficulty of getting supplies during the war; but, independently of this fact, the increasing consumption of the continent, generally, is rapidly progressive. From the survey we have been able to make of this branch of the investigation, we find our former conclusion, that the consumption will at even a more rapid rate than heretofore, outrun the growth, is more than confirmed. In connection with this fact, we would refer to a Report on the Commercial Relations of the United States with Foreign Nations, which appeared recently in the *National Intelligencer*, made by the Secretary of State to Congress, of which the following is a brief abstract:

"The export of cotton from the United States to the countries of northern Europe commenced some sixty years ago. In the year 1800, Holland, including the territory now known as the kingdom of Belgium, received 79,694 pounds; in 1855 the aggregate quantity exported to the two countries was 17,160,967 pounds. In 1803, Norway and Denmark first imported American cotton, amounting that year to 184,193 lbs.; in 1855, the aggregate quantity exported to these two countries, including Sweden, was 7,000,000 pounds. Prussia and Sweden began importing cotton from the United States in 1804. Russia in 1809 received cotton from the United States

for the first time, and to the amount of half a million pounds; while in 1853, the year prior to the commencement of the late war, the exportation to that country amounted to more than twenty-one millions. The Hanse-towns received cotton from the United States prior to the year 1800; and the progress of the trade with those cities, which is exhibited in the subjoined statement, strikingly exemplifies, in connection with the remarks which have preceded and the general statement which follows it, the rapid and powerful advancement of the kingdom, not of the United States only, but of the commercial world.

"The following statement shows the quantities of cotton exported from the United States to the Hanse-towns every ten years, for a period of fifty-one years, from 1805 to 1855:

In 1805.....	lbs. 122,003
1815.....	1,346,283
1825.....	577,109
1835.....	2,688,147
1845.....	17,204,094
1855.....	30,809,991"

The total consumption of 1856 being estimated at 4,465,000 bales, it is an increase over that of 1855, (3,637,000,) above 22 per cent. Should the crop of the United States prove 3,000,000, and the supply from the other sources 1,000,000, (East Indies 600,000, other places 400,000,) there would be a large deficiency at the end of the year. Should the United States crop reach 3,100,000, and the supply from other sources 1,100,000, as it is thought probable, this would still leave a deficiency, and must give rise to serious apprehensions for the consequences in Europe, not solely to the laboring classes, but to small capitalists engaged in the cotton manufacture. Some of the large number of cotton-mills created in England within the past year, engaged in the manufacture of the coarser descriptions, must be closed, to bring the consumption within the supply. But it will be seen by the above statement, that, if the latter reaches the figure of 4,465,000 bales, the consumption must be diminished about seven per cent., leaving no stock at the close of the year.

FUTURE SUPPLY OF COTTON.—The future supply of cotton in the United States is subject to the influence of an economic law, invariable in its operation, to wit: the law of increase of the slave population. This increase is three per cent. per annum. The application of slave labor to tracts more or less fertile, leads to a difference in the result according to the extent of the emigration from the less to the more productive cotton

regions. This difference amounts to about two per cent., comparing the old with the new cotton States. On referring to the tables at the close of these remarks, it will be perceived that from 1851 to 1854, the most productive period of the cotton culture in the United States, the increase was within a fraction of five per cent. annually. The cycle of bad seasons would, of course, vary the result. It may be safely concluded, therefore, that the *maximum* rate of present increase is five per cent. per annum.

A misconception appears to prevail, that the more northern States, particularly Virginia and Kentucky, are systematically breeding States for the more southern. One of the sources of slave increase in the southwest is of course migration. But the fact is patent to observation, that the migratory impulse with the view to profit in the owners of slaves, is an incentive of sufficient force to induce emigration without the desire of gain from slave breeding. It is unphilosophical, therefore, to seek for any different motive as of general operation. The addition made to the cotton crop, by the internal slave trade, as it is called, as compared with the increase from the emigration of the owners of slaves with their property, is too limited to be taken into view as any part of the industrial economy of the Southern States. The higher return on slave labor employed in producing cotton, to what is derived from raising wheat or tobacco, may incidentally and temporarily direct the current of slave emigration from Kentucky and Virginia to the banks of the Mississippi, to obtain a higher value for negro property than can be obtained in those States. But the breeding of slaves on system until their labor becomes available in the cotton-field, involves an annual outlay, which must fail to pay the ordinary interest on investment of agricultural capital in the South. This misconception, that one portion of the South forms the breeding States for another portion, is one of the persistent delusions of foreigners on this subject.

We perceive, then, that the circumstances which limit the supply, as they are operative in the United States, are simply the command of slave labor and the capability from emigration of increase from extended cultivation over a wider area of more fertile territory, it being assumed as indisputable, that there can be no deficiency of such territory for an indefinite period. Improvements in agriculture will not at best no more than preserve the original fertility of the soil in the Southern States. Processes by which agricultural labor may be abridged, in the nature of machinery, can scarcely be expected to increase the produce of our cotton-fields materially, except they are of the character of Whitney's cotton gin. We have seen how

long a period elapsed before this discovery took place, and how little mechanical invention has added since to the increase of the cotton crop.

Much discussion has recently arisen as to the probability of increasing the supply from the British East Indies and the shores of the Mediterranean. This branch of the subject is still involved in much obscurity. The representations which have been made as to the physical inaptitude of the soil and climate of British India, and the wide spaces which divide its cotton districts from the ports of exportation, and these again from the chief seats of manufacture in Europe, may be supposed to be somewhat exaggerated. The influence of high prices may be found far more effectual in stimulating the culture as well in British India as in the countries which border the Mediterranean, than the low price of labor in those countries. Nor must we forget that the Indian possessions of Great Britain will at no distant day be intersected by railroads to the extent that British capital can be applied to this purpose. Sicily, Malta, the Grecian Islands, the West Indies, formerly produced cotton under the stimulus of high prices. As late as the year 1810, the British supply from other sources than the United States, amounted to 314,414 bales, whilst from the United States the quantity received was only 246,759 bales, under a stimulus to cultivation of 15d. to 22d. for Upland, and 21d. to 2s. 4d. for West India descriptions. This is a question then that must be determined by other elements than the relative price of labor, and the relative distance of the cotton-growing districts from the chief places of European manufacture. It is not premiums such as have been offered by the present French government to extend the cultivation in Algeria, or formerly by the British authorities to improve the culture and preparation for market in their East India possessions, that the increase can be made not only progressive, but permanent and ample.

Now, although production may be stimulated in British India and other regions adapted to the growth, independently of the United States, by high prices, the questions of capability to grow the quantity required even for the United Kingdom, is not to be solved by the relative costs of cultivation, or by relative prices either separately or in combination. It will be found that no large, continuous supply is possible without such a command of compulsory labor as is only to be obtained in the United States. The plains of India, the fields of Algeria, Egypt, Sicily, may fill a void caused by occasional failures of crop, but to produce without interruption, except from bad seasons, from year to year, three or four millions of bales, there

must be combined coercion over the actual cultivators with self-interest in the proprietors, during every stage of the production and preparation. While there is no system of voluntary labor which can compare, in certainty of effect, with the results of that which is involuntary, so there is no modification of proprietary right that finds a parallel with that enlightened self-interest which prevails in the Southern States of this confederacy. In British India, the Riot system, besides precluding the unity of effort, which in these States renders the whole process from the moment the seed is placed in the ground, until the product is put into bales, like an undivided operation, there are several intermediaries concerned in the cultivation there, which, in dividing the interest, makes the product uncertain. Nor do these conclusions rest on theory. They are amply confirmed by experience. Cotton is produced exclusively by slave labor in the United States. The supply from this country formed during the last thirty years 75 per cent. annually of the entire British consumption. The English possessions in India, the next largest source of supply, where the staple is the product of free labor, furnished in the last six years about one-twelfth part of the consumption of Europe.

Expectations are indulged as to the future increase of East India cotton, for British consumption, judging from the past rate of increase, which must prove fallacious. In the three years, 1824-'5-'6, the import into British ports from the East Indies was 17,184,000 lbs., annual average. In the three years, 1853-'4-'5, the import was 148,954,000, annual average, an increase of between eight and nine fold, or 28 per cent. per annum. Within the same period the United States increase for that consumption has been from 121,318,000 to 687,410,000 lbs., between five and six fold, or about 18 per cent. annually. But when in 1823-'4-'5, the East Indies furnished the above small aggregate for British consumption, the supply from the United States had reached the large amount of 121,318,000 lbs., and in 1853-'4-'5, when the East Indies supplied 148,954,000, the United States furnished 687,410,000 for the same market. The reason of this is very obvious. Having long preceded British India, as well in quantity produced, as in skill in the preparation, like the British superiority in the cotton manufacture, the United States have retained their ascendancy, by that gradual reduction in the price of the raw material correspondent to the fall in value of manufactured cotton goods. The real question here at issue then, is not the relative rate of increase, but the capacity of growing a quantity adequate to the general want, having the same rate of progression.

Even if we suppose soil, climate, and labor in British India favorable to extended cultivation, an insurmountable difficulty will be found in the absence of a suitable population there for the consumption of British manufactures. The low wages of labor of its working classes limit their purchasing ability. The want of commercial equivalents, consisting of the exchange of the respective productions of countries, is evinced in the fact, that Great Britain is compelled to offset her imports from the East Indies by a large annual export of silver, showing conclusively the absence of the materials for the formation of a trade of barter, the only mutually beneficial commerce of nations.

In this connection we must not, however, omit to state that the supply of East India cotton, for the consumption of the United Kingdom, has increased 64 per cent. within the last five years, 55 per cent. within the last three years, and 17 per cent. within the last year, whilst, according to the statement of Messrs. DuFay & Co., of Manchester, embracing the periods from the 15th December, 1855, to 15th December, 1856, the British export of plain and printed calicoes within five years has increased from 398 millions of square yards in 1850, to 548 millions in 1855, and from 548 millions in 1855, to 658 millions in 1856.

The greater area in the United States over which the cultivation may be extended, will depend of course on the extent of the emigration from the older and partially exhausted to the newer and more fertile regions of the Southwest, irrespective of the additional command of labor from the natural increase of the slave population. The gain from working the rich bottom lands of the Red river, and the Arkansas, would, of course, exceed the loss from the abstraction of hands from the less productive cotton lands of South Carolina and Georgia.

The influence of any diversion of labor from sugar to cotton cultivation in Louisiana and Texas will depend on the comparative prices of these two staples, and their comparative costs of cultivation. The recent failure of the sugar crop is said to be traceable as much to the exhaustion of the soil, and the deterioration of the plant, as to natural causes. Should Congress reduce the duty on sugar, it would form an operative circumstance, to a certain extent, in the transfer of labor from the sugar to the cotton culture. But it will be borne in mind that the conversion of sugar into cotton lands is difficult, and attended with much loss from the high cost of machinery for sugar production; although during the present year there has been, in Louisiana, a considerable change of culture from sugar to cotton.

There is one element, however, which, on the question of future supply, must exercise much influence—we allude to the advanced and advancing prices of slaves in the Southern States, which must govern the price of cotton as one of the conditions of supply. There is every probability, and indeed little doubt, but what the supply of 1857, under the combined influence of high prices and lessened consumption, will be one of the largest ever made, if the season should prove favorable. But these are causes of temporary effect, and cannot supersede an economic law in its permanent operation. That law creates a relation between the supply of an article produced under partial monopoly, as in the instance of cotton, and the expense of producing it. Slave labor constitutes the largest portion of that expense.

The present high price of slaves may, in part, be attributable to the increased rates which cotton has attained; but under the influence of advancing money prices, as cotton, it is presumable, participated in their general decline in some degree from 1840 to 1850, so it is rational to conclude that it will partake of their general advance, in common with all other articles, independent of the consideration that the rate of consumption exceeds that of production. Under such circumstances, although it may require one or perhaps two seasons to recover the equilibrium between demand and supply, still the principles by which these are regulated must be sought in permanent and not accidental causes—in the costs of production where labor is so large an ingredient as in the cotton culture, with the extent of the sacrifice which the consumers of cotton goods may be disposed to make correspondent with the advance in the price of the raw material. That goods and yarn must advance in price to meet this altered relation of values, the consequence of a changed ratio between supply and consumption as well as the lower value of money, is as certain to take place as that labor and commodities act and react on each other as to price—first effect and then cause. Cotton having advanced the price of slaves, this enhanced value of labor must, in its turn operate on the value of the product of that labor, as the higher price of the raw material must advance the prices of cotton manufactures.

The principles, therefore, which have ordinarily governed the price of cotton, can have now only a qualified application, not merely from the fact that one of the constituents of that price, slave labor, is higher, and that money is becoming cheaper, but that consumption is outrunning production, measuring the former not solely by the wants of the British spinners, but also by the demand of the continental consumers of

cotton goods and the raw material. Under the combined effect of these circumstances, of a partial monopoly of the supply, (for the United States furnish two-thirds of the whole,) and the higher relative rate of consumption compared with the growth, the price must advance with the increased cost of cultivation. It would be difficult to conjecture at what price cotton will gravitate to that centre which will adjust it to this cost; but, as casting some light on this point, not alleging that there are regular cycles between prices and supply, it will not be uninteresting to look back at historical periods that mark the alternation of prices with the varying production.

Taking periods of ten years, in the three years ending 1825, the average annual growth of United States cotton was about equal to its total average consumption, being respectively between 500 and 600,000 bales, the price being within the same period 11d. at Liverpool for good uplands. In the ten years ending 1835 the average annual production was 979,000 bales, an increase of about 80 per cent. or 8 per cent. per annum, the consumption having increased in about the same ratio, the price at Liverpool being 9d. In the decennial period ending 1845, the average crop was 1,824,000, about the same rate of increase as in the last preceding period, the consumption having augmented about 85 per cent., and the price being 6½d. In the subsequent ten years, terminating in 1855, the production was 2,545,000, average increase about 40 per cent. price 5½d. the consumption having increased only about 40 per cent. But in nearly equally dividing the last period 1850 to 1855, we shall find that in the first six years there was a very small and in the last 4 years a large increase. The equilibrium had been restored about the year 1852, and prices had gradually risen as the production lessen and the consumption increased. From 1825 to 1845 cotton fell from 11d. to 5½d., the effect of over production. In coming down to the last decade, we see the influence of a restoration of the equilibrium between the supply and consumption, prices having advanced from 1845 to 1855 about 6 per cent. Now, whether we shall fall back to the period between 1835 and 1845, 7d. for good upland, as the future standard, is a subject for conjecture; but we feel confident that we shall never again recede to the prices between 1845 and 1850.

The following tables have been carefully prepared, with the assistance of a competent hand, showing in two periods of twelve and sixteen years respectively, the comparative supply and consumption, and the yearly average rate of increase of both periods:

Comparative statement of supply and consumption of Cotton.

Stock of all sorts in Europe, 1st January, 1844..... 1,000,000 bs.
 " " " " 1856..... 570,000 "
 Showing for the 12 years an excess of consumption over supply of 430,000 "

SUPPLY.				CONSUMPTION.			
Years.	U. S. Crops.	Other countries.	Total.	England.	Rest of Europe.	U. States.	Total.
1844.....	2,389	539	2,569	1,435	719	346	2,500
1845.....	2,304	455	2,849	1,577	784	389	2,750
1846.....	2,100	345	2,455	1,564	814	422	2,800
1847.....	1,778	442	2,220	1,106	700	427	2,233
1848.....	2,347	427	2,774	1,505	679	531	2,715
1849.....	2,728	467	3,195	1,587	895	518	3,000
1850.....	2,096	629	2,725	1,513	900	487	2,900
1851.....	2,355	600	2,955	1,663	955	404	3,022
1852.....	3,015	660	3,675	1,862	1,150	603	3,615
1853.....	3,262	810	4,072	1,935	1,169	671	3,775
1854.....	2,928	582	3,510	1,967	1,173	610	3,750
1855.....	2,850	700	3,550	2,101	1,195	594	3,890
29,883 6,656 36,539				19,815 11,133 6,002 36,950			

The figures express thousands of bales.

To establish the yearly average rate of increase of supply during the period of 1844 to 1855, I assume 2,569 as the real average for 1844, and since we have 36,539 for the total received during the twelve years, the annual rate of increase will be found to be 3 039-1000 per cent. If we take the average of every three successive years, we shall have

Total of 1844 a '46,	7,863,	average for 1845,	2,621
" 1847 a '49,	8,189,	" " 1848,	2,730
" 1850 a '52,	9,355,	" " 1851,	3,118
" 1853 a '55,	11,132,	" " 1854,	3,711

From which we deduce, that the supply from 1845 to 1848 has increased 1 367-1000 per cent. per annum; from 1848 to 1851, 4 529-1000 per cent; and from 1851 to 1854, 5 974-1000 per cent. If we effect the same calculations with the consumption, the annual rate of increase from 1844 to 1855, will be found to be 3 720-1000 per cent.

Average of three successive years:

Total of 1844 a '46,	8,050,	average for 1845,	2,683
" 1847 a '49,	7,948,	" " 1848,	2,649
" 1850 a '52,	9,537,	" " 1851,	3,179
" 1853 a '55,	11,415,	" " 1854,	3,805

Thus from 1845-'48, consumption has decreased 0 426-1000 per cent. per annum; from 1848 to 1851, the increase was 6 268-1000 per cent; and from 1851 to 1854, 6 174-1000 per cent.

Comparing the results obtained:

SUPPLY.			
From 1844 to '55, increase 3 039-1000 per cent.			
" 1845 to '48,	"	1 367-1000	"
" 1848 to '51,	"	4 529-1000	"
" 1851 to '54,	"	5 974-1000	"

CONSUMPTION.

Increase.....	\$ 720-1000 per cent.
Decrease.....	0 426-1000 "
Increase.....	6 268-1000 "
Do.....	6 174-1000 "

*Comparative statement of supply and consumption of Cotton,
from 1841 to 1856.*

SUPPLY.				CONSUMPTION.			
Years.	U. S. Crop.	Other countries.	Total.	England.	Rest of Europe.	U. States.	Total.
1841....	1,620	570	2,190	1,160	688	297	2,145
1842....	1,684	545	2,229	1,249	756	268	2,273
1843....	2,380	509	2,889	1,412	743	325	2,480
1844....	2,090	539	2,629	1,435	719	346	2,500
1845....	2,394	455	2,849	1,577	784	389	2,750
1846....	2,100	345	2,445	1,564	814	422	2,800
1847....	1,778	442	2,220	1,106	700	427	2,233
1848....	2,347	427	2,774	1,505	679	531	2,715
1849....	2,728	467	3,195	1,587	895	518	3,000
1850....	2,096	629	2,725	1,513	900	487	2,900
1851....	2,355	600	2,955	1,663	955	404	3,022
1852....	3,015	660	3,675	1,862	1,150	603	3,615
1853....	3,262	810	4,072	1,935	1,169	671	3,775
1854....	2,928	582	3,510	1,967	1,173	610	3,750
1855....	2,850	700	3,550	2,101	1,195	594	3,890
1856....	3,527	843	4,370	2,264	1,373	653	4,290
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	39,094	9,123	48,217	25,900	14,694	7,545	48,138

Yearly average rate of increase of supply during period 1841 to 1856, 4.09 100 per cent.

Total supply from	1841 to '44,	9,877	} average increase for period	
" " "	1845 to '48,	10,288		4 17-100 per cent.
" " "	1849 to '52,	12,550.....		21 97-100 "
" " "	1853 to '56,	15,502.....		23 55-100 "

Yearly average rate of increase of consumption during period 1841 to 1856, 4.44-100 per cent.

Total consumption from 1841 to '44, 9,398	} average increase for period	
" " " 1845 to '48, 10,498		11 79-100 per cent.
" " " 1849 to '52, 12,537.....		19 39-100 "
" " " 1853 to '56, 15,705.....		25 27-100 "

COMMERCIAL PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.

In the February number of the Review was published a detailed statement of the Exports of Domestic Produce from the United States for the years 1855 and 1856, the aggregate amount of which being—

1855.....	\$246,708,555
1856.....	310,586,330

The exports, in the last named period, of goods which were not the produce of the country, but had been previously im-

ported, amounted to \$16,378,578, making the total exports of 1856, \$326,964,908. The following are the names of such articles of foreign goods exported as amounted each to over \$100,000:

Gold.....	\$862,698	Lead—bars, &c.....	\$189,155
Silver.....	726,130	Wooden manufactures, not	
Teas.....	1,882,611	specified.....	662,767
Coffee.....	1,252,416	Raw hides.....	101,924
Woollen piece goods.....	370,147	India-Rubber, unmanufac'd	120,802
" Shawls.....	219,378	Honey.....	117,091
Including cotton & silk		Molasses.....	306,180
Worsted piece goods, includ-		Sugar—brown.....	1,030,617
ing cotton.....	179,211	refined.....	189,501
Woolens, not specified....	210,667	Pepper, black.....	168,918
Cotton piece goods.....	1,145,178	Pimento.....	215,500
Cotton goods not specified..	306,870	Saltpetre, crude.....	339,841
Silk piece goods.....	268,917	Segars.....	180,742
Silk, not specified.....	263,962	Wheat.....	143,991
Linens, manufactured.....	138,236	Flour.....	198,870
Clothing.....	104,046	Fish, dried or smoked....	170,841
Iron manuf'a, not specified.	210,605		

The above table does not include all of the amounts under each head, but only those which in the tables reach \$100,000, as before remarked. For instance, there are other manufactures of wool, cotton, silk, and iron, exported in smaller quantities, and are not therefore named.

The following table will show what articles were imported into the United States during the year ending June 30, 1856, which amounted each to \$100,000 and over:

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	TOTAL.	SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	TOTAL.
Bullion—Gold.....	\$114,289	Carpeting—	
Silver.....	103,951	Wilton, Saxony, Aubusson, Brus-	
Specie—Gold.....	876,016	sels, Turkey, treble-Ingrained,	
Silver.....	3,118,376	Venetian, and other Ingrain-	
Tens.....	6,898,891	ed.....	\$1,929,196
Coffee.....	21,514,196	Not specified.....	283,123
Copper, in plates, suited to the		Manufactures of cotton—	
sheathing of vessels.....	377,655	Piece goods.....	19,110,753
Copper ore.....	695,740	Velvets.....	565,883
Sheathing metal.....	646,984	Cords, gimps, and galloons....	194,005
Plaster unground.....	115,165	Hosiery and articles made on	
Wearing apparel & other personal		frames.....	2,516,848
effects of emigrants and citizens		Twist yarn and thread.....	1,276,760
dying abroad.....	362,572	Manufactures of, not specified...	2,227,283
Garden seeds, trees, shrubs, plants,		Silk, and manufactures of silk—	
&c.....	871,264	Piece goods.....	25,200,651
Articles, the produce of the United		Hosiery and articles made on	
States, brought back.....	1,287,831	frames.....	611,298
Guano.....	831,576	Sewing silk.....	250,138
All other articles not subject to duty	19,730,891	Hats and bonnets.....	102,827
Manufactures of wool—		Manufactures not specified.....	3,974,974
Piece goods, including wool and		Raw.....	991,294
cotton.....	11,683,476	Silk and worsted piece goods....	1,335,247
Shawls of wool, wool and cotton,		Goats' hair or mohair piece goods.	307,323
silk, and silk and cotton.....	2,529,771	Manufactures of flax—	
Blankets.....	1,205,300	Linens; bleached or unbleached.	9,849,600
Hosiery and articles made on		Manufactures not specified.....	1,334,942
frames.....	1,173,094	Manufactures of hemp—	
Worsted piece goods, including		Articles not specified.....	124,833
cotton and worsted.....	12,234,275	Clothing—ready-made.....	404,133
Woolen and worsted yarn.....	198,746	Articles of wear.....	1,574,211
Manufactures of, not specified...	505,004	Laces—Thread and insertings....	410,591
Flannels.....	100,248	Cotton insertings, trim'mgs,	
Balizes and bookings.....	117,561	laces, braids, &c.....	1,191,019

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	TOTAL.	SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	TOTAL.
Embroideries of wool, cotton, silk, and linen.....	\$4,664,353	Furs—	
Gunny cloth and gunny bags.....	1,249,167	Undressed on the skin.....	\$665,607
Mating, Chinese, and other of flags, &c.....	221,795	Hatters' furs, dressed or undressed, not on the skin.....	1,755,704
Hats, caps, and bonnets, hats, braids and plats, &c.—of leg-horn, straw, chip, or grass, &c.....	1,965,254	Dressed on the skin.....	157,200
Manufactures of iron and steel—		Wood, manufactures of—	
Fire-arms not specified.....	576,425	Willow.....	125,808
Needles.....	246,060	Other manufactures of.....	429,915
Cutlery.....	1,698,094	Wood, unmanufactured—	
Other manufactures and wares of, not specified.....	4,191,147	Cedar, granadilla, mahogany, rose, and satin.....	440,246
Nails, spikes, tacks, &c.....	127,879	Dye-wood, in stick.....	796,802
Chain cables.....	455,568	Bark of the cork tree, corks.....	262,567
Iron—		Ivory, unmanufactured.....	820,100
Bar.....	5,322,785	Marble, unmanufactured.....	177,967
Rod.....	478,523	Brushes and brooms.....	252,643
Hoop.....	345,094	Raw hides and skins.....	8,083,293
Sheet.....	814,842	India rubber, unmanufactured.....	1,045,576
Pig.....	1,171,055	Hair—manufactured.....	129,860
Old and scrap.....	155,112	unmanufactured.....	427,870
Railroad.....	6,179,280	Unmanufactured articles—flaxseed or linseed.....	1,741,260
Steel—		Wool.....	1,665,064
Cust, shear, and German.....	1,098,355	Wines in casks—Sherry and St. Lucar.....	270,317
All other.....	839,968	Port.....	158,729
Copper and manufactures of copper—in pigs, bars, and old.....	1,388,812	Claret.....	561,440
Manufactures of, not specified.....	235,752	Red wines, not enum'd.....	279,243
Brass and manufactures of brass—		White wines, not enum'd.....	158,575
Manufactures of, not specified.....	192,892	Wine in bott's, Champagne.....	970,706
Tin, and manufactures of tin—		Claret.....	805,912
In pigs and bars.....	1,163,735	All other.....	292,946
In plates and sheets.....	4,469,839	Spirits, foreign distilled—	
Lead and manufactures of lead—		Brandy.....	2,859,342
Pig, bar, sheet, and old.....	2,528,014	From grain.....	772,376
Zinc and manufactures of zinc—		From other materials.....	288,494
Sheets.....	357,586	Beer, Ale, & Porter, in ck's.....	190,554
Spelter.....	527,024	In bottles.....	520,343
Manufactures of gold and silver—		Honey.....	169,643
Jewelry, real or imitations of.....	475,685	Molasses.....	4,394,668
Gems.....	868,905	Oil, in bottles.....	876,356
Watches, and parts of.....	8,500,754	Linseed.....	1,063,771
Metallic pens.....	116,155	Palm.....	416,317
Buttons, all other, and button moulds.....	515,883	Essential oils.....	119,488
Glass and manufactures of glass—		Cocoa.....	116,076
Silvered.....	390,720	Sugar, brown.....	22,400,353
Polished plate.....	473,205	Fruits, Almonds.....	384,529
Manufactures of, not specified.....	108,416	Currants.....	127,080
Window glass, broad, crown, and cylinder.....	488,487	Figs.....	233,181
Paper and manufactures of paper—		Raisins.....	864,219
Writing paper.....	272,010	Oranges, lemons, & limes.....	640,670
Paper hangings.....	228,577	Other green fruit.....	117,889
Paper and manufactures of paper not specified.....	135,167	Preserved fruit.....	124,480
Printed books, magazines, &c.—		Nuts.....	157,801
In English.....	560,147	Spices, Nutmegs.....	826,193
In other languages.....	180,755	Pepper, black.....	313,552
Engravings.....	162,499	Pimento.....	352,023
Musical instruments.....	491,634	Cassia.....	169,705
Daguerreotype plates.....	104,057	Cheese.....	141,169
Leather and manufactures of leather—		Soap, other than perfumed.....	221,773
Tanned, bend, sole, and upper.....	1,913,987	Bristles.....	243,964
Skins tanned and dressed.....	755,758	Saltpetre, crude.....	1,199,243
Boots and shoes.....	138,872	Indigo.....	1,663,743
Gloves for men, women, and children.....	1,344,550	Cochineal.....	249,057
Manufactures of, not specified.....	810,243	Madder.....	1,671,805
Ware—		Gums, Arabic, Senegal, &c.....	295,515
China, porcelain, earthen, and stone.....	8,347,884	Other gums.....	233,016
Plated or gilt.....	160,198	Borax.....	153,276
Saddlery—		Brimstone, crude.....	163,509
Plated, brass, or polished steel.....	154,054	Chloride of lime or bleaching powder.....	210,877
		Soda, ash.....	697,309
		Soda, sal.....	149,596
		Soda carb.....	318,387
		Acids, acetic, &c.....	190,049
		Sulphate of quinine.....	258,771
		Liquorice, paste.....	301,423
		Bark, Peruvian and Quilla.....	402,225
		Other.....	227,007

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	TOTAL.	SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	TOTAL.
Opium.....	\$485,546	Value of merchandise not enumerated in the preceding abstract—	
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....	1,009,044	At 5 per cent.....	\$1,416,190
Cigars.....	8,741,460	10 per cent.....	440,902
Paints, red & white lead.....	174,125	20 per cent.....	3,004,863
Manilla, sun, and other hemp of India.....	1,945,044	25 per cent.....	151,784
Jute, Sisal grass, coir, &c.....	205,889	30 per cent.....	2,101,090
Flax, unmanufactured.....	132,461	40 per cent.....	809,980
Rags of all kinds.....	1,239,168		
Salt.....	1,991,065	Paying duties.....	\$257,684,236
Coal.....	604,187	Free of duty.....	56,956,706
Fish, dried, smoked, or pickled—			
Dried or smoked.....	155,223	Total.....	\$314,639,942

The following table will show the value of goods of domestic production exported from each of seventy-four ports of the United States during the year 1855-'56. It will be seen that the Southern ports make up about half the amount exported, though supplying a large part of the material exported from the Northern ports. New Orleans and Charleston, together, about equal New York in their foreign exports:

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL.	DISTRICTS.	TOTAL.
Passamaquoddy.....	\$980,594	Baltimore.....	\$10,856,637
Machias.....	48,379	Georgetown, D. C.....	20,001
Frenchman's Bay.....	5,696	Alexandria.....	616,580
Penobscot.....	33,477	Tappahannock.....	78,595
Wiscasset.....	22,564	Norfolk and Portsmouth.....	412,085
Bath.....	87,277	Petersburg.....	257,693
Portland and Falmouth.....	861,342	Richmond.....	4,125,669
Saco.....	6,554	Camden.....	28,614
Belfast.....	56,023	Edenton.....	1,056
Bangor.....	153,041	Plymouth, N. C.....	26,326
Portsmouth.....	5,168	Washington, N. C.....	36,027
Vermont.....	350,607	Newbern.....	19,221
Newburyport.....	62,379	Ocracoke.....	3,469
Gloucester.....	134,868	Beaufort.....	3,523
Salem.....	1,393,738	Wilmington.....	257,938
Marblehead.....	5,862	Charleston.....	17,328,503
Boston and Charlestown.....	24,673,575	Georgetown, S. C.....	29,795
Fall River.....	7,487	Savannah.....	8,005,736
New Bedford.....	77,704	St. Mary's.....	36,228
Providence.....	214,249	Brunswick.....	49,724
Bristol and Warren.....	101,960	Mobile.....	23,726,215
Newport.....	77,015	Pensacola.....	55,547
New London.....	233,759	Key West.....	26,375
New Haven.....	559,268	St. John's.....	110,798
Fairfield.....	4,035	Apalachicola.....	1,783,603
Sackett's Harbor.....	828	New Orleans.....	80,576,652
Genesee.....	757,910	Texas.....	1,252,925
Oswego.....	4,787,750	Miami.....	256,503
Niagara.....	874,892	Sandusky.....	23,859
Buffalo Creek.....	868,664	Cuyahoga.....	764,690
Oawegatchie.....	774,605	Detroit.....	895,624
New York.....	98,763,197	Chicago.....	1,345,223
Champlain.....	2,354,795	Milwaukie.....	345,493
Cape Vincent.....	665,868	Oregon.....	6,234
Newark.....	390	Puget's Sound.....	91,299
Philadelphia.....	6,955,324	San Francisco.....	10,002,562
Presque Isle.....	88,084		
Delaware.....	76,880	Total.....	\$310,586,320

The exports of foreign goods from the several ports showed \$6,098,602 in the hands of New York, or more than one-third of this trade, and not more than one-sixteenth in all of the Southern ports together. Only thirty-one ports out of seventy-five re-exported anything.

The following table will show the amounts imported at each port from all foreign countries, duty free, and also the total imports. It will be seen that New York imported nearly two-thirds of the whole, whilst all of the Southern ports together hardly reached one-tenth:

DISTRICTS.	DUTY FREE.	TOTAL.	DISTRICTS.	DUTY FREE.	TOTAL.
Passamaquoddy....	221,433	354,533	Newark.....	2,538	2,538
Machina.....	338	874	Philadelphia.....	2,360,783	16,585,985
Frenchman's Bay..	265	1,838	Presque Isle.....	4,314	4,300
Penobscot.....	220	6,190	Delaware.....	2,500	3,053
Waldoborough.....	11,321	11,321	Baltimore.....	4,368,231	9,119,907
Wiscasset.....	546	650	Georgetown, D. C..	207	55,017
Bath.....	10,938	57,988	Richmond.....	183,673	307,964
Portland and Fal- mouth.....	74,742	1,430,087	Norfolk and Ports- mouth.....	3,300	185,023
Saco.....	90	90	Petersburg.....		100,016
Kennebunk.....	543	543	Alexandria.....	18,697	98,787
Belfast.....	3,401	20,303	Camden.....	11,786	19,032
Bangor.....	7,110	53,719	Plymouth, N. C....	12,407	10,516
Portsmouth.....	15,506	24,339	Washington, N. C..	31,535	32,467
Vermont.....	1,520,674	1,560,118	Newbern.....	12,309	12,994
Newburyport.....	19,905	31,091	Beaufort, N. C....		108,986
Glocester.....	61,442	212,089	Wilmington.....	6,373	84,965
Salmon and Beverly.	333,032	1,794,595	Charleston.....	278,785	1,905,234
Marblehead.....	29,832	29,832	Savannah.....	88,120	574,240
Boston & Charlestown	4,168,703	41,661,088	Mobile.....	249,014	793,514
Plymouth, Mass....	3,594	4,607	Pensacola.....		557
Fall River.....	11,023	15,185	Key West.....	10,330	49,793
Barnstable.....	11,194	11,432	St. Mark's.....		11,227
New Bedford.....	15,504	53,625	St. John's.....		431
Nantucket.....	945	4,033	Apalachicola.....		24,021
Providence.....	39,302	232,186	New Orleans.....	7,591,968	10,682,892
Bristol & Warren..	2,243	49,271	Texas.....	25,588	92,259
Newport.....	2,537	14,946	Saluria.....	3,057	23,472
New London.....	27,994	35,129	Brazos de Santiago.	34,936	206,103
New Haven.....	14,221	692,901	Miami.....	14,905	20,532
Fairfield.....	4,239	4,229	Sandusky.....	7,343	8,222
Sonington.....		13,142	Cuyahoga.....	175,944	434,719
Sackett's Harbor...	17,867	13,142	Detroit.....	453,410	845,285
Genesee.....	1,114,884	1,117,321	Michilimackinac...	18,137	35,400
Oswego.....	5,315,200	5,321,275	Chicago.....	210,326	277,404
Niagara.....	1,047,242	1,053,740	Milwaukee.....	18,754	27,694
Buffalo Creek.....	1,877,531	1,887,239	Oregon.....	240	2,724
Oswegatchie.....	1,797,660	1,803,805	Puget's Sound.....	229	3,953
New York.....	17,648,006	195,645,515	San Francisco.....	2,063,982	7,230,037
Champlain.....	1,666,309	1,713,413	Sonoma.....		9,502
Cape Vincent.....	1,573,362	1,537,833			
Perth Amboy.....	230	250	Total.....	56,935,706	314,639,042

The following table will show the national character of the foreign vessels entering our ports during the same period, and also those which were cleared:

NATIONAL CHARACTER OF THE VESSELS.	ENTERED.			CLEARED.		
	No.	Tons.	Crews. Men. Boys.	No.	Tons.	Crews. Men. Boys.
Russian.....	1	40	9	1	500	20
Prussian.....	35	14,670	430	96	11,153	233
Swedish.....	29	20,622	743	53	29,513	673
Danish.....	27	5,835	279	25	5,917	245
Hamburg.....	71	37,164	1,313	70	38,529	1,220
Bremen.....	170	92,556	3,088	173	95,500	3,145
Lubeck.....	2	531	25	2	560	21
Oldenburg.....	27	15,047	412	22	10,952	222
Mechlenburg.....	12	4,640	173	14	6,007	163
Hanoverian.....	3	2,229	50	3	1,191	49

STATEMENT—Continued.

NATIONAL CHARACTER OF THE VESSELS.	ENTERED.				CLEARED.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Dutch.....	52	16,893	652	1	55	22,367	815
Belgian.....	1	200	8
British.....	10,450	2,152,892	105,672	956	10,274	2,126,380	105,350	985
French.....	71	23,935	1,809	65	21,920	1,063
Spanish.....	283	62,813	3,027	7	242	68,339	3,230	11
Portuguese.....	24	4,737	215	25	5,089	237
Sardinian.....	25	6,830	313	24	6,647	235
Sicilian.....	27	8,814	365	29	7,504	366
Tuscan.....	1	33	4
Austrian.....	2	1,477	45	3	2,013	49
Mexican.....	38	4,849	355	33	3,800	280
Central American...	2	187	16	3	192	21
New Granadian...	3	965	35	7	1,859	76
Venezuelan.....	6	1,105	47	5	1,099	50
Brazilian.....	3	702	27	3	955	85
Uruguay.....	1	104	8
Chilian.....	14	4,125	193	10	2,844	123
Peruvian.....	4	1,682	68	1	352	15
Sandwich Islands...	6	927	53	10	1,564	81
Chinese.....	1	277	14
Total.....	11,875	2,486,769	118,934	974	11,186	2,462,109	118,469	970

Vessels built in the United States, 1855-'56.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Ships & barka	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops & canal boats.	Steamers.	Total.	Tons & 25ths.
Maine.....	155	70	83	4	4	316	149,907 88
New Hampshire.....	9	..	1	10	10,395 08
Vermont.....	2	1	3	501 82
Massachusetts.....	84	10	35	1	4	134	80,834 83
Rhode Island.....	5	3	5	13	4,331 44
Connecticut.....	5	1	22	10	2	40	7,504 90
New York.....	24	7	87	161	27	306	76,361 12
New Jersey.....	51	20	4	75	9,543 47
Pennsylvania.....	4	2	15	208	63	292	37,328 91
Delaware.....	1	1	18	9	2	31	4,358 45
Maryland.....	12	8	110	3	..	133	19,917 74
D. of Columbia.....	23	..	23	1,442 29
Virginia.....	1	..	9	13	6	29	3,147 11
North Carolina.....	22	4	2	28	2,278 60
South Carolina.....	2	1	1	4	265 05
Georgia.....	1	..	1	..	4	6	1,426 77
Florida.....	2	2	47 05
Alabama.....	1	..	5	1	5	12	2,642 87
Mississippi.....	5	2	..	7	239 40
Louisiana.....	9	..	10	19	1,815 53
Tennessee.....	4	4	796 82
Missouri.....	7	7	2,037 84
Kentucky.....	19	19	5,120 80
Illinois.....	..	1	13	7	..	21	4,404 47
Ohio.....	1	..	56	7	33	97	29,636 63
Indiana.....	5	5	1,732 64
Wisconsin.....	2	..	12	14	2,442 93
Michigan.....	1	..	24	1	17	43	8,529 01
Texas.....	3	3	99 40
California.....	4	2	1	7	362 09
Total.....	306	103	594	479	221	1,703	46,393 73

Number and class of vessels built in the United States.

YEARS.	Ships & barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops and canal boats.	Steamers.	Total.	Tons and 95ths.
1815.....	136	224	681	274	...	1,314	154,624 39
1816.....	76	122	781	424	...	1,403	131,668 04
1817.....	34	86	559	394	...	1,073	86,393 87
1818.....	53	85	428	332	...	898	82,421 20
1819.....	53	82	473	242	...	850	79,817 86
1820.....	21	60	301	152	...	534	47,784 01
1821.....	43	89	248	127	...	507	55,856 01
1840.....	97	109	378	224	64	872	118,309 23
1841.....	114	101	310	157	78	762	118,893 71
1842.....	116	91	273	404	137	1,021	129,083 64
1843.....	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617 77
1844.....	73	47	204	279	163	766	103,637 29
1845.....	124	87	322	342	163	1,038	146,018 02
1846.....	100	164	576	355	225	1,420	188,203 93
1847.....	151	168	689	392	198	1,598	243,732 67
1848.....	254	174	701	547	175	1,851	318,075 54
1849.....	108	148	623	370	208	1,547	256,577 47
1850.....	247	117	547	290	159	1,360	272,218 54
1851.....	211	65	522	326	238	1,367	298,203 60
1852.....	255	79	584	267	259	1,444	351,493 41
1853.....	269	95	681	394	271	1,710	425,572 49
1854.....	334	112	661	386	281	1,774	535,616 01
1855.....	381	126	605	669	253	2,034	583,450 04
1856.....	306	103	594	479	221	1,703	469,393 73

A comparative view of the tonnage of the United States:

YEARS.	Total.	Registered in whale fishery.	In steam navi- gation.	Enrolled in the	
				Coasting.	Cod fishery.
1815..	1,368,127 78	435,066 87	26,510 33
1816..	1,372,218 53	479,979 14	37,879 30
1817..	1,399,911 41	4,871 41	481,457 92	53,990 26
1818..	1,225,184 20	16,134 77	508,140 37	58,551 72
1819..	1,260,751 61	31,700 40	523,556 20	65,042 92
1820..	1,280,166 24	35,391 44	539,080 46	60,842 55
1840..	2,180,764 16	136,926 64	201,339 29	1,176,694 46	76,035 65
1841..	2,130,744 37	157,405 17	175,088 36	1,107,067 88	66,551 84
1842..	2,092,890 69	151,612 74	229,661 15	1,045,753 39	54,804 02
1843..	2,158,602 93	152,374 86	236,867 58	1,076,155 59	61,224 25
1844..	2,280,095 07	168,293 63	273,179 33	1,109,614 44	85,224 77
1851..	3,772,439 43	181,644 52	583,607 05	1,854,317 90	87,475 89
1852..	4,138,440 47	193,797 77	643,240 69	2,008,021 48	102,659 59
1853..	4,407,010 43	193,202 44	514,097 87	2,134,256 30	109,227 40
1854..	4,802,902 63	181,901 02	676,607 12	2,273,900 58	102,194 15
1855..	5,212,001 10	186,773 02	770,285 12	2,491,108 00	102,927 67
1856..	4,871,652 46	189,213 29	673,077 54	2,211,935 45	95,816 08

Statistical view of the commerce of the United States 1855-'56, arriving from and departing to each foreign country.

COUNTRIES.	EXPORTS.	IMPORTS.	AMERICAN TONNAGE ENTERED.	FOREIGN TONNAGE ENTERED.
Russia on the Baltic and North Seas...	\$606,791	\$234,700	2,869
Russia on the Black Sea.....	883	729
Asiatic Russia.....	282	40
Russian Possessions in North America.....	80,684	105,881	8,891
Prussia.....	79,769	161,169	1,091	889
Sweden and Norway.....	1,919,363	871,245	9,477	4,278
Swedish West India.....	60,769	10,192	961
Denmark.....	227,715	1,180
Danish West India.....	908,801	225,028	13,451	2,168
Hamburg.....	3,927,045	2,611,982	5,229	20,177
Bremen.....	10,281,451	11,846,580	82,045	91,821
Lubeck.....
Other German ports.....	30,855	208
Holland.....	3,586,423	2,426,479	16,194	17,637
Dutch West India.....	829,082	586,875	5,120	1,295
Dutch Guiana.....	821,516	922,765	7,152	702
Dutch East India.....	210,156	1,399,259	9,169	873
Belgium.....	6,500,693	3,106,511	40,332	6,326
England.....	154,079,585	118,045,544	1,066,495	350,187
Scotland.....	3,956,542	4,181,506	26,870	54,170
Ireland.....	4,374,730	89,032	3,680	11,163
Gibraltar.....	438,016	88,126	5,205	4,322
Malta.....	814,586	44,224	12,418	5,083
Canada.....	20,883,241	17,488,197	1,191,716	1,217,719
Other British N. American Possessions.....	6,146,108	3,892,224	187,754	402,441
British West India.....	4,484,652	2,285,248	58,373	87,524
British Honduras.....	888,730	882,117	5,173	2,718
British Guiana.....	875,260	151,574	6,306	1,246
Other British Possessions in S. America.....	148
British Possessions in Africa.....	418,251	483,594	5,320	408
British Australia.....	5,084,972	139,452	3,025	1,100
New Zealand.....	27,772
British East India.....	767,629	7,005,911	65,619	1,828
France on the Atlantic.....	39,229,377	45,500,398	211,353	24,743
France on the Mediterranean.....	3,281,596	3,515,664	29,957	7,062
French North American Possessions.....	173,874	150,461	2,517
French West India.....	475,144	56,138	8,576	1,986
French Guiana.....	148,098	27,147	1,124	192
French East India.....	582,025	8,580
Spain on the Atlantic.....	1,428,255	1,660,441	20,710	26,128
Spain on the Mediterranean.....	6,006,063	16,708	1,180	576
Canary Islands.....	38,446	2,926,870	24,293	2,112
Philippine Islands.....	269,357	24,485,683	516,650	56,082
Cuba.....	7,809,263	3,870,963	40,601	12,040
Porto Rico.....	1,142,724	287,166	10,879	7,434
Portugal.....	378,199	19,788	284
Madeira.....	28,587	86,910	2,696	1,207
Cape de Verde Islands.....	58,709	22,883	4,556	541
Azores.....	16,449	317,179	13,565	8,983
Sardinia.....	2,204,993	1,596,801	13,985	4,979
Tuscany.....	491,178	89,064	358
Papal States.....	81,842	1,488,526	67,794	18,777
Two Sicilies.....	378,771	476,541	4,087	2,782
Austria.....	826,693
Austrian Possessions in Italy.....	1,618,135
Ionian Republic.....
Greece.....	46,274	7,670	3,335
Turkey in Europe.....	1,181,692	693,587	9,898	963
Turkey in Asia.....	379,733	54,979	1,081
Egypt.....	1,165,887	14,187	529
Other ports in Africa.....	1,795,419	1,924,269	44,738	5,957
Haiti.....	2,136,454	60,196	1,043	663
San Domingo.....	80,693	3,568,631	48,402	8,367
Mexico.....	3,702,239	246,833	85,744	796
Central Republic.....	895,621	2,325,010	127,221	741
New Granada.....	1,611,392	4,202,662	25,833	5,184
Venezuela.....	1,712,774	10,262,687	109,054	12,688
Brazil.....	5,094,304	361,036	1,801	255
Uruguay, or Cisplatine Republic.....	531,339	2,322,161	19,544	856
Buenos Ayres, or Argentine Republic.....	1,259,563	2,467,819	15,266	3,536
Chili.....	2,867,743
Bolivia.....
Peru.....	1,244,223	217,750	50,943	6,620

Statistical view of the Commerce of the United States—Continued.

COUNTRIES.	EXPORTS.	IMPORTS.	AMERICAN TONNAGE ENTERED.	FOREIGN TONNAGE ENTERED.
Ecuador.....	29,440	84,804	1,002	
Sandwich Islands.....	919,405	249,704	17,774	1,022
Japan.....	4,000	16,821	424	
China.....	2,528,237	10,454,435	69,194	2,981
Other ports in Asia.....			121	
Other ports in the Pacific.....				
Whale Fisheries.....	842,335	55,067	43,331	492
Uncertain places.....		502	67	
Total.....	\$326,964,908	\$314,639,942	4,885,454	2,486,769

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, 1855-'56.

STATE.	Total domestic exports.	Total foreign exports.	Total American and foreign produce exported.	Imports in American vessels.	Imports in foreign vessels.	Total imports.
Maine.....	\$2,250,947	\$708,094	\$2,958,041	\$1,849,420	\$501,353	\$1,940,773
New Hampshire..	5,168	107	5,275	9,485	14,904	24,389
Vermont.....	850,607	690,848	1,541,455	1,560,118		1,560,118
Massachusetts....	26,855,613	3,467,247	29,322,860	29,950,151	13,664,783	43,614,934
Rhode Island.....	393,224	14,150	407,374	301,708	44,095	345,803
Connecticut.....	797,092	8,263	805,354	719,208	18,199	737,401
New York.....	109,848,509	9,263,091	119,111,600	169,492,799	40,667,655	210,160,454
New Jersey.....	390		390	503	2,285	2,788
Pennsylvania.....	7,043,408	189,164	7,232,572	15,179,022	1,411,028	16,590,045
Delaware.....	76,880		76,880	3,053		3,053
Maryland.....	10,856,637	264,761	11,121,398	7,809,330	1,810,577	9,119,907
Dist of Columbia.	90,001		90,001	55,017		55,017
Virginia.....	5,499,623	5,745	5,493,867	507,810	185,685	693,495
North Carolina...	376,174		376,174	235,259	89,701	324,960
South Carolina...	17,358,298	2,251	17,360,549	1,638,634	246,610	1,905,244
Georgia.....	8,091,688		8,091,688	440,078	134,162	574,240
Florida.....	1,976,323		1,976,323	51,853	54,159	56,014
Alabama.....	98,736,215	7,965	98,744,180	607,060	185,532	792,592
Louisiana.....	80,576,652	238,423	80,815,075	14,764,999	1,917,393	16,682,392
Mississippi.....						
Tennessee.....						
Missouri.....						
Ohio.....	1,045,052		1,045,052	349,240	114,213	463,453
Kentucky.....						
Michigan.....	835,624	85,404	921,028	880,683		880,683
Wisconsin.....	345,493		345,493	7,215	20,479	27,694
Illinois.....	1,345,223		1,345,223	90,883	190,521	277,404
Texas.....	1,232,925	637,064	1,940,589	209,321	112,013	321,334
California.....	10,002,562	715,512	10,718,074	3,732,968	3,565,856	7,298,824
Oregon Territory.	6,234		6,234	2,734		2,734
Washington Terr'y	91,299		91,299	3,087	563	3,650
Minnesota Terr'y.						
Total.....	810,586,390	16,378,578	826,964,908	349,972,512	64,667,430	414,639,942

Upon the Indirect trade of the United States some valuable tables are appended to the Treasury Report. They show that the ports of Bremen, France, England, Belgium, Holland, and Hamburg, conduct most of this indirect trade, and we therefore add a table with reference only to these ports:

Indirect Trade of the United States, 1855-'56.

IMPORTED FROM	VIA THE PORTS OF—					
	BREMEN.	FRANCE.	ENGLAND.	BELGIUM.	HOLLAND.	HAMBURG.
Prussia	\$2,406,967	\$3,254,446	\$1,551,067	\$670,755	\$69,941	\$283,999
Saxony	3,445,571	502,691	266,053	33,329	968	408,215
Bavaria	813,500	180,661	45,737	14,250	6,174	50,905
Frankfort-on-the-Main	222,516	385,269	45,313	97,074	19,237	14,033
Wurtemberg	73,715	88,448	29,678	8,987	2,917	1,635
Baden	45,477	160,800	22,666	245,121	43,931	2,782
Hesse	173,793	272,995	29,603	56,568	26,676	5,085
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	11,621	373
Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach	6,883
Saxe-Meiningen	13,310	237	875
Hanover	27,332	312	2,795	3,358
Brunswick	4,601	8,605	1,243
Oldenburg	2,685	110	334
Nassau	5,080
Countries not specified	2,570	335,451	10,417	15,765
Total Zoll-Verein	7,250,351	4,809,217	2,326,445	1,136,451	193,422	771,140
Total Switzerland	596,379	5,564,173	2,189,230	193	941	2,129
Total Austria	258,916	75,646	74,223	1,705	32,461
Total France	1,354,710	7,381,661	24,916	251	38,700
Total England	183,658	277,890	46,433	83,244	80,624
Total British East In-	143,295
dies	247,868	2,305	5,832
Total Belgium	59,903	869,501	2,216	1,094
Total Holland	447	8,197
Total Dutch East In-	13,549	40,205
dies	36,401	91,723
Total Russia	693	6,243
Total other countries
not specified	51,393	154,961	625,455	7,795	232	41,900
Total value	\$9,756,880	\$11,258,833	\$13,040,393	\$1,218,637	\$320,650	\$1,009,514

The reports of the Treasury for the present year are more elaborate than they have ever been before, and there are many marked improvements. The Secretary, as urged by us, has reduced the number of articles not specified, and given, for the first time, the commerce of each of the ports of the Union. This is a manifest improvement.

In our next number a further analysis of the report will be made, examining its tables of production and population, made up at the Treasury from the Compendium of the Census, prepared in 1854, and made up in some cases very loosely. In particular we shall refer to the Secretary's remarks upon low duties and free trade. One cannot but be surprised at finding in the report of a Democratic Secretary such a sentence as the following. It savors more of the other side, and is a virtual endorsement of the principles for which it so long and so ably contended:

"Instead of a modification of the tariff and the reduction of the revenue from customs, many persons suggest, that we should repeal all tariffs, and establish the same free trade with foreign nations, that exists between the States of the Union, particularly those who deem the revenue now raised from imports, unjustly levied and extravagantly and wastefully expended. They urge that the only remedy applicable to existing evils, is the experiment of free trade with foreign nations, and direct taxation on our people. I have considered that foreign nations are not prepared for the same free trade we enjoy with each other, and that we cannot have reciprocal free trade without their consent; and that until they agree to admit our productions free, it would not be expedient to admit theirs free, and allow them to tax our labor, when we do not tax theirs in return."

THE SOUTHERN STATES—MISSISSIPPI.

HISTORICAL SKETCHES OF THE STATE OF MISSISSIPPI FROM THE EARLIEST PERIODS.

In the earlier volumes of the Review the reader will find many interesting articles upon this State, as well as upon the other Southern States, and they are all reprinted in our volumes entitled *Southern States*, etc.

There seems to be little doubt that Pinedo, the Captain of Garay, saw for the first time the mouth of the Mississippi when he executed, in the year 1519, his first circumnavigation of the whole Mexican Gulf. We have, unhappily, no special report of Pinedo's proceedings. But on the few maps or sketches of the Mexican Gulf which were made in Spain soon after Pinedo's return (of the years 1520, 1521, and 1529) there is to be found, near the centre of the northern gulf shore, a large inlet called "*Mar pequeña*," (the little sea,) and a mighty river leading into it called "*Rio del Espiritu Santo*."

Diego Ribero, on his large and accurate map, (of 1529,) which he made for the Emperor Charles V, has this bay and the mouth of the river already under 29° north latitude, which is very remarkable, because it is the true latitude of the Mississippi mouth, and because it nearly decides the question that not the Mobile bay, as some have supposed, but the Mississippi, was indicated by it. Nobody could have made this discovery, given these names, and brought home the news of it but Pinedo.

Since that time the "*Mar pequeña*" and the great river "*Del Espiritu Santo*" never disappear more. We can trace and follow them on the Spanish maps through the whole of the sixteenth century, and find them always, with some slight variations, in the middle part of the northern gulf shore, and generally under the latitude from 29° to 30° north.

I believe that with the name "*Mar pequeña*" is meant that great bay which is included between the projecting promontories formed by the Mississippi passes and the northern gulf shore, and for which we have, as we ought to have, no general name.

On many maps, there is to be found on the eastern entrance of the whole inlet a "*Cabo de Sta, +*" (Cabo de Santa Cruz, Cape of the Holy Cross.) This cape seems to have been very famous, because it appears even on the maps where many other names have vanished. I have no doubt that by this name the Mississippi passes were indicated. The passes of the Mississippi present from the seaside very much the appearance of a cape or promontory. They enter, with their islands and peninsulas, very far into the sea. There are generally breakers all round. Even the patches of sweet river water, which flow

sometimes many miles out to the gulf, have breakers round them, and present the appearance of islands and capes. Also, in later times, the passes of the Mississippi were called "a cape" by the Spaniards, as we will soon see.

The Mississippi passes must have appeared to the old Spanish navigators as very dangerous and difficult of approach. And very often they put the name of the Holy Cross to capes of this description.

The second traveller after Pinedo who saw and crossed the Mississippi was no doubt Cabeça de Vaca and his companions, between the years 1530, 1535. From Cabeça de Vaca's report it is evident that his commander, Narvaez, and his companions, got lost about Mobile or Perdido Bay, or somewhere else not very far to the east of the Mississippi. Once, he says, they believed themselves to have arrived at the "*Bay of Espiritu Santo*," near the Mississippi. Afterwards, Cabeça and his followers wandered westward in the direction of New Mexico; so they must have crossed the Mississippi. But that is all we can say. He mentions so many great rivers in his report that we cannot recognize amongst them the true "*Rio Grande*," the Mississippi.

Fernando de Soto was the third discoverer and principal old Spanish explorer of the Mississippi. He arrived at its borders, in the neighborhood of the so-called Chickasaw bluffs, 1542, and ascended and descended the river, which in the reports of his expeditions is generally only called "*Rio Grande*," up and down. He died on the shore of the river, and was buried in its waters somewhere about the mouth of the Arkansas river.

De Soto's successor, Moscoso, carried the rest of the Spanish army, in the year 1543, down the whole river, and he was the first commander who sailed from the mouth of the river into the sea. Which of the passes it was cannot be made out. Biedman, one of the writers on De Soto and Moscoso, and one of their companions, states, however, that the river had different mouths and branches.*

In one of the reports on De Soto's expedition (by Garcilasso de la Vega) it is said that the Indian name of the great river was "*Chucagua*." Probably, in consequence of this, the geographers put sometimes on their maps the name "*Chucagua*" to the river. Generally, however, the old name of "*Rio del Espiritu Santo*" (River of the Holy Ghost) prevailed after De Soto for a long time.

One of the historians of De Soto, the so-called "Portuguese gentleman of Elvas," sometimes calls it "*the great river of*

* See his report.

Guachoya." Guachoya was one of the places along the river where De Soto encamped.

"In Guachoya," says Garcilasso, "the great river is called '*Tamalieu*;' in Nilco, '*Tapata*;' in Coça, '*Mico*;' at the mouth it is called '*Ri*.'"

In the year 1557 the Governor, Luna, was sent to Pensacola bay, and from thence, with his captains and men, made many inroads into the interior towards the north and west. It is very possible, though it is nowhere exactly stated, that some of his men also got as far east as the Mississippi.

After De Luna's expedition we do not hear for more than a hundred years of any remarkable expedition to these regions, but there is scarcely a doubt that in all this time the mouth of the Mississippi was at least often seen again. The Mexican silver-fleets made their annual turn through the northern parts of the gulf, and some of their ships were no doubt often cast away so far north that they got in sight of the "Cabo de Santa Cruz," (the projecting Mississippi passes.) There is sometimes, however, on the maps of the seventeenth century, such a fanciful representation of the course of this river, which on the old maps was always drawn as running due north to south, that it is evident that the knowledge of the river degenerated, and that it had fallen into oblivion.

The French Marquette, (1673,) and soon after him the Sieur de la Salle, (1682,) rediscovered the Mississippi, and saw a greater part of the river than ever was seen before them.

De la Salle was, after Moscoso, (1543,) the first who sailed (1682) down the whole river to its mouth and entered the Mexican Gulf. He explored in boats the whole delta of the passes, and saw, without however naming them, all the principal passes. A little above the dividing point of the passes he erected a monument with the arms of France. This was on the 8th of April, 1682. On the 7th of the same month he had explored the principal branches of the river and seen the sea. He observed also the latitude of this place; but there is a great diversity about the results of his observations. Some say that he observed the latitude 27° north, as, for instance, that remarkable document of the taking possession of the country at the mouth of the river by La Salle.* Also, Barcia says† that La Salle observed the latitude of the mouth between the 27° and 28° north latitude, "though," he adds, "some heard La Salle say that the mouth was between 28° and 29° north latitude." After this La Salle ascended the stream again to the north.

Father Marquette (1672) was the person who introduced for

* See French Docum. I, p. 42.

† Page 247.

the first time into geography the Indian name of the river, "Mississippi." He, however, gave to it at the same time the Christian or French name "*Riviere de Conception*." La Salle seems not to have ratified this latter name. He called the river after the great French Minister, "*Riviere de Colbert*." On some maps even the whole upper Mississippi country is called "La Colbertie," (Colbert's land.) The name *Riviere Colbert* may be called La Salle's name for the Mississippi. It seems, however, soon to have given way to the Indian name Mississippi, which really was already longer known to the European missionaries, and which was already oftener adopted in books and in commerce than those new inventions of the European discoverers.

The next man after De la Salle who came down the Mississippi was the Sieur de Tonti, (or Tonty,) who had already accompanied La Salle on his first navigation. De Tonti had heard that La Salle had set out from France to the mouth of the river, and he came, in the year 1685, down to meet him at the shores of the gulf. He arrived there during "the Holy Week" (Easter) of 1686, but did not find La Salle, who had reached the coast of Texas instead of that of the Mississippi passes.

Tonti sent out two canoes from mouth of the river, one "towards the coast of Mexico" (west) and one "towards Carolina," (east.) They each sailed about thirty leagues, but, finding nothing, returned, and Tonti, with his men, again ascended the Mississippi to Canada.*

De Tonti, who had been already (1682) with La Salle at the mouth of the river, and who again, at a later date, came a third time down this river, (not quite to the gulf, however,) was no doubt the greatest Mississippi traveller of the time. He was also the first who explored the outer shores of the Delta on both sides.

The next year after him (1687) a Spanish expedition, under the command of Don Andres de Pes, coasted along the whole Mexican Gulf,† and passed the mouth of the Mississippi, with the intention to drive the French out of that gulf. They did not find them. But the next year (1688) another Spanish expedition, under the same Don Andres de Pes, came again to the northern shores of the gulf, and explored also the mouth of the Mississippi.

It was, I believe, on these latter Spanish expeditions that the Mississippi river received its new Spanish name, "*Rio de la Palizada*," though I do not find this exactly stated. The name is not to be found on any of the Spanish maps or books before

* See French I, p. 67, cf.; also, Barcia.

† Barcia, p. 284.

this time. But the authors who speak of these expeditions of Andres de Pes, in the years 1687 and 1688, use always the name "Rio de la Palicada;" (palicada means in Spanish a "palisade.") Some believe that the Spaniards alluded by this word to the great natural rafts of trees which they saw drifting out from the river; and this is very probable. Some have thought that the Spaniards alluded by this word to the French palisaded stockade fort at the mouth of the river called "Balise," and that "Rio de la Palicada" was nothing but a translation from the French, "*Riviere de la Balise*." Against this opinion speaks the fact that the Fort la Balise was built in the year 1722,* and that that Spanish name was in use amongst the Spaniards before this.

It was also at this time that to the projecting Mississippi Delta, or "the passes," the Spanish name "*Cabo de Lodo*" (Muddy Cape) was given. Barcia says that it was given by Barroto in the year 1686. We see this name after this time appear on many maps; also sometimes changed to "*Cabo de Fango*," which means the same.

Some English geographers also put this name, even as late as 1770, on their maps. But, because they misunderstood the name, they often disfigured it; as, for instance, Jefferys, (1768,) who makes of it "*Cabo de Lado*," (a Cape of the Side.) Even the French on their maps sometimes adopted this name as very appropriate, but translated it to "*Cap de Boue*."†

In the time of the first French settlements along Mississippi sound the name *Riviere Colbert* may have been sometimes still used.

"One of the names of the river under which Iberville (in 1699) had heard it called," says Charlevoix, "was *Malbouchia*." But the name Mississippi seems already then to have been quite common. At least the first journal written in this colony—that of Capt. Sauvol, (1699–1700)—uses always the name Mississippi, and not a single time that of *Riviere Colbert*. In the year 1712 an attempt was made to give the river still another name. The great King of France himself ordered, in the letters-patent to Crozat, that the great river "heretofore called Mississippi" should henceforward be called "*Riviere St. Louis*." But this name, newly sent out from France by royal authority, did not keep its ground against the old long-ago adopted Indian name. Charlevoix, who travelled along the river 1721–'22 and published his work 1744, never uses it. He always calls it "*Missipi*" or "*Micissipi*." Into general use the name *Riviere St. Louis* has certainly not come; but

* See Dumont II, 57.

† For instance, D'Anville.

on maps made by royal geographers or great servants like D'Anville we find it still used in the year 1732, though always *besides* the name Mississippi.

The name "Mississippi" is an Ojibbeway word, which the first discoverers of that stream heard pronounced in their missions round Lake Superior. According to some its meaning is "*the Great Water*." Others (for instance, the Rev. Bishop Baraga) explain it as "rivers," or "waters from all sides."

Du Pratz gives the following erroneous explanation of the name. He says *Mechasepi* is called by the Indians "*Meact Chassipi*," which literally denotes the ancient father of rivers. The name is already to be found on the map of Marquette (1673) and of Fronquelin, (1688,) and on that of Hennepin, (1698.) It is very differently spelled Marquette writes "*Mitchisipi*;" Hennepin writes "*Mechasepi*" or *Mechacebe*. The English historian Coxe corrupted this "*Mechacebe*" even to "*Merchacebe*." It is in his book not a misprint, but a misreading; for he has repeatedly "*Merchacebe*." With this shape and spelling the great river's name was at first introduced to the acquaintance of the English nation. As other Indian names of the river, Coxe gives still the following: "*Chucagua*," (an old Indian name already known to the Spaniards,) "*Sasagoula*," and "*Mala banchia*," (perhaps the "Malbouchia of Iberville.") Dumont, in his memoirs on Louisiana, gives still another similar Indian name, "*Barbancha*," and Du Pratz "*Balbancha*."

The French authors generally write "*Missisipi*;" the Spanish authors have always "*Misisipi*." We now double every consonant in it, and write "*Mississippi*," in which word I have no doubt some letters could be spared.*

The tract of land which now belongs to the present State of Mississippi was in olden times comprised under all those different ancient and general names under which the whole northern shore of the Mexican Gulf became known to Europe. In the year 1798 the name of the river was for the first time given to a territory, and the great "*Mississippi Territory*" was erected, which included also the present State of Alabama. In the year 1817 the eastern portion of this territory was separated from it and received the name of Territory of Alabama, whilst the western portion, with a very limited seashore, (from Pearl river to Grande Bay,) was admitted into the Union as the *State of Mississippi*.

* Compare the Dictionary of the Ojibbeway language by Father Baraga.

CONNECTION OF OUR ATLANTIC AND PACIFIC SHORES.

A late report of Captain Cram, United States Topographical Engineer, printed by Congress, gives much new and valuable light upon the subject of the several proposed Isthmus connections. This subject has been over and over adverted to in the pages of the Review. It was introduced at the Savannah Convention, and reported on by a committee. (See Review for February, 1857.) We extract some passages from Captain Cram's remarks:

THE PANAMA ROUTE.

"For the transit across the Isthmus twenty-four hours are generally consumed between the arrival of the Atlantic steamer at Aspinwall dock and departure of the corresponding Pacific steamer, from her mooring in Panama bay, with passengers, mail, and freight, all aboard for San Francisco. The mere time in the cars, however, is only three to five hours. At the Atlantic terminus the sea-steamer comes directly to the dock, in a good harbor, and the passengers have only to walk the plank to step, as it were, into the cars. But at the Pacific terminus it is different; here, on arriving at the railroad depot, which is near the water's edge, they are all immediately crowded on a steam-lighter boat, of shallow draft, and transported over the Panama bay, two or more miles, to the Pacific steamer, the shoalness of water not allowing steamships a nearer approach to the shore." * * * *

"Of the four routes it is the Panama that involves the greatest extent of travel between New York and San Francisco, and the greatest vicissitudes in climate, requiring the passengers to go from 40° 40' north latitude to a southern climate, within 7° 13' of the equator, and thence northwardly to 37° 48' north latitude, making an extensive excursion from cold to heat and from heat to cold in a short time." * * * *

"The time and distance, at the present rates of steam locomotion on this route, will now be considered by introducing extracts of results from my 'Memoir on United States Mail Route Distances, Atlantic and Pacific,' recently written.

"Between New York and Aspinwall, as measured from the logs of the steamers averaging many trips, both ways running, it is 2,392 miles, and the average time of all the boats in the line is 10½ days. Between arrival at Aspinwall dock and departure from Panama bay, the average time of transit is one day and distance 51 miles. Between Panama bay and San Francisco, touching only at Acapulco, the distance by the logs, taking a mean of many trips of all the steamers, both ways running, is 3,775 miles, and the average time is 13½ days. Hence the totals between New York and San Francisco are 6,218 miles and 25 days. I have computed geodetically the

shortest lines it is possible for a steamer to run in calm water, and find from New York, by east end of Cuba, to Aspinwall 2,263 miles, which is less, by 129 miles, than the average of the runs given by the logs; and between Panama bay and San Francisco, touching at Acapulco, 3,731 miles, which is less by 45 miles than what results from the logs.

"The nearness to an agreement between the computed shortest possible runs and the runs actually given in practice is interesting, and shows how near in point of distance the steamers have attained in their average runs to the theoretical minimum of extent on both oceans. We are also shown by this comparison that the causes opposing the run on the shortest line have a much greater effect in the Atlantic than in the Pacific; for the practical results show that on the former a steamer, striving for the shortest run between two points, will make her total run longer by 0.054 of her count than the theoretical distance on a tranquil sea, whilst on the latter it is only 0.012 of her total count. To make this plainer by an example, suppose that on the Atlantic she strives to make a run on the shortest run between two points and finds her total count to be 100 miles; then will the shortest distance on a tranquil sea, between the same points, be only 94.6 miles, and on the Pacific, if her total run counts 100 miles, the shortest distance between the two points measured on a tranquil sea—suppose such a state possible—would be 98.8 miles.

"It will be seen by the foregoing practical data that the present average rate is, for the Atlantic between New York and Aspinwall, $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour, and on the Pacific, between Panama and San Francisco, it is $11\frac{1}{2}$ per hour, including the time of one stoppage to coal on each ocean." * * *

THE NICARAGUA ROUTE.

"On anchoring, small river steamers come alongside and receive the passengers and baggage, and ascend the river to rapids, where a short portage is made to their head; here all are again embarked in another set of river steamers, to ascend to other rapids, where another short portage is made. At the head of these another embarkation takes place upon other boats, to ascend to the outlet of Lake Nicaragua. At the outlet a transshipment occurs to a fine lake steamer, which runs to Virgin bay, where all are disembarked and transported by wagons and mules over a good road, 12 miles, to San Juan del Sur, on the Pacific. Here the Pacific steamship receives the passengers directly from a wharf boat, without the inconvenience of being rowed in a small craft to the ship." * * *

"The distances, time, and speed of the steamers on this route will now be considered for the journey from New York to San

Francisco. From New York to the mouth of San Juan river, the shortest run is 2,403 miles; length of transit 137 miles; run from San Juan del Sur to San Francisco, 2,964 miles. Total, 5,504 miles statute.

"This makes the Nicaragua route shorter by 714 miles than the Panama route." * * * *

THE HONDURAS ROUTE.

"Either the Honduras Company has made an error in reporting the length of their contemplated railroad, or there is a very considerable error in latitude or longitude of one or both of the termini, Porto Caballo or Fonseca. I am disposed to believe in the latter supposition. The shortest line—supposing a water level all the way from port to port—across the isthmus is 163½ miles. The actual length of the road to obtain suitable grades would, in all probability, be not less than 190 miles. But whether the road be a few miles longer or shorter is of little moment, viewed in reference to the magnitude of the undertaking. Let us suppose a good plank or railroad constructed, the running time in stages on the former would be twenty hours, and on the latter in cars ten hours; to which add twelve hours for disembarking and re-embarking, and we should have the time for the transit thirty-two hours, or twenty-two hours, according as the wooden or iron superstructure was used. The shortest run from New York to Porto Caballo would be 2,102 miles, requiring, according to the present working speed of the Atlantic steamers in the Panama line, 9½ days. The transit would consume one day. The shortest run from Fonseca to San Francisco would be 2,865 miles, requiring 10½ days, according to the present working rate of the Pacific steamers. And thus we see the total length of the journey, in miles, would be 5,157, and in time twenty-one days from New York to San Francisco, instead of fourteen, as intimated in the report of the proceedings of the Chamber of Commerce of Liverpool." * *

"The chart I have before me of the Fonseca shows it to be well land-locked from all except the southwest winds, and the soundings show ample depth in the channels for steamships to enter. In reference to the harbors at the termini of this contemplated transit road, I will here quote from Mr. Totten, chief engineer of the Panama road. In a published letter, September 3, 1856, he says: 'I see but one favorable feature in that [Honduras] route, which is the bay of Fonseca, on the Pacific, towards which Mr. Squiers seems to have an enthusiastic partiality. The proposed harbor terminus (Isabel) on the Atlantic side is only approachable by vessels of very light draught.'

"It seems that Lieut. Jeffers, United States Navy, made a survey of Porto Caballo in 1854. Mr. Squiers concludes, from the chart of this survey, 'that in case of entrance, depth of water, safety of anchorage, and all other essentials, this is the best port on the Atlantic coast of Central America, without exception;' and also strengthens his opinion of its advantages from the fact that Cortez regarded it as 'the best port in all New Spain,' in his letter to the Emperor Charles V.

"Mr. Squiers is of the opinion Mr. Totten has altogether mistaken the Atlantic terminus of the proposed Honduras railroad, and so it would seem from the latter having assumed Isabel for the terminus."

THE TEHUANTEPEC ROUTE.

"I think it clearly established that, in point of distance, shortness of sea voyage, vicissitudes of climate, tranquility of waters, and speed, the Tehuantepec route for the commerce and travel between the United States ports has decided advantages over all others.

"Mr. Webster, in a speech in the Senate, expressed it as his decided opinion, after mature examination of the subject, 'that our Government should omit no proper efforts to induce the Mexican Government to co-operate in the opening of this transit, as it was destined to be all-important to the interests of the people of both Republics.' I have claimed decided advantages for the whole route; but in reference to merely making the isthmus transit it may be otherwise." * * *

"From New York to the mouth of the Coatzacoalcas the shortest run is 2,275 miles, and the time, according to the present rates of speed on the Atlantic and Gulf, would be 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ days. The transit, 336 miles from ocean steamer to ocean steamer, would require 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ days, supposing only four miles per hour on the wagon road and six miles per hour on the river, and allowing eighteen hours for transshipments and stoppages. From Ventosa to San Francisco the shortest run is 2,304 miles, which at the present rate of speed in the Pacific, would require 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ days. These give the totals between New York and San Francisco, 4,815 miles and time 20 $\frac{1}{2}$ days.

"Thus it seems this route is shorter than the Panama by 1,403 miles and 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ days in time; and less than the Honduras by 342 miles and by $\frac{1}{4}$ day in time, notwithstanding the railroad at Panama; and though there should be one for the Honduras, and only the river and a wagon road for this, the Tehuantepec route.

"Should the Tehuantepec Company, however, put their design in execution of constructing a substantial railroad from Minutitlan to Ventosa, 166 miles in length, on which in no

place would the maximum grade exceed sixty feet per mile, then would the transit be made in twenty hours from ocean steamer to ocean steamer, and the Tehuantepec route between New York and San Francisco would have the advantage of a saving of $6\frac{1}{2}$ days over the Panama and of $2\frac{1}{2}$ days over the Honduras.

"This, be it observed, supposes a railroad in operation on each transit.

"If we adopt a mean between that proposed by Mr. Steers and the present working speed, we should, supposing a railroad, have the total time on the Tehuantepec route from New York to San Francisco, only 12 days 4 hours. This would put the ships up to 15 miles per hour on the Atlantic, and $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the Gulf and the Pacific, and allow *one* day for the transit." * * *

"However adverse to entering on details, there are some that ought not in justice to be here omitted, and these pertain to the natural facilities of the harbors at the termini of the Tehuantepec transit. For the Atlantic terminus the harbor is the lower part of the Coatzacoalcos river from its mouth up to Minititlan, for an extent of twenty miles. In relation to the bar at the mouth of this river, I refer to the survey of Commander Lynch, United States Navy, in 1848, as published in a chart from the United States Hydrographical Office, which gives the depth on the bar twelve and a half feet, shoalest place at lowest tides. I also refer to an examination by Captain Foster, of the steamship Alabama, who crossed the bar several times, and has given directions for entering the river under the worst winds that occur. He reports:

"The bar, by actual measurement, to be (from deep water on the inner to corresponding depth on the outer side) only 108 feet in breadth; the bottom, composed of sand and clay, is hard, and on this account does not shift. The general depth on the bar is not less than twelve feet, from which the water deepens gradually to nearly thirty feet each way."

"From the bar the Coatzacoalcos river carries a width of one-fourth to one-third of a mile, and a depth of eighteen feet, at least for twenty miles above, up to Minititlan, and of sixteen feet for ten miles higher up at lowest stages—as shown by the soundings of Lieutenant Alden, United States Navy, in 1847.

"It is proven, beyond doubt, that the character of the bottom is such that no material shifting of the channel or change in the bar has occurred since it was first known to the Spanish navigators; and a sufficient evidence of permanency is furnished by the simple fact that, from that time to the present day, this river has continued to debouch, in a due north direc-

tion, into the very bottom of the Gulf of Mexico, in spite of the northers that sweep in an opposite direction. In consequence of this permanency, improvements by deepening the channel on the bar would be likely to succeed, but there is at present no necessity for any improvement of the kind. Sea steamers constructed suitably for it can now enter without difficulty when the channel is once properly marked by buoys, with a draft ample for safety in the navigation of the Atlantic any where on this route.

"In reference to the harbor at the Pacific terminus, this is so much misunderstood and so differently reported by those who have never had an opportunity of personal observation, or of an inspection of the chart, that I will not attempt to make statements without likewise giving authority to sustain me.

"Ventosa, which is the Pacific terminus, is often confounded with Bocca Barra, the entrance from sea into lakes, twenty-five miles east of Point Morro. This point juts well out into the ocean, and covers from the north and west winds a capacious indentation, which is only exposed to the south and southeast winds. It is this bay that is the proper La Ventosa, having excellent anchorage and deep water near in shore, no rocks, no islands or shoals in the offing to make it dangerous to enter at any time, however foggy. And in it, for a long extent, the water is ten feet deep within one hundred feet from the shore. By docking out two hundred and fifty feet a little to the eastward of Point Morro we get sixteen to eighteen feet water, deep enough for the largest class of sea steamers to lie alongside.

"P. Trastour, Esq., civil engineer, and Lieutenant Temple, United States Navy, both propose an expensive breakwater to cover this harbor from the southeast, but do not agree upon the location; and this recommendation, I find, has been the foundation for the opinion of those who carelessly examine subjects that a breakwater is indispensable at Ventosa. Nothing is more erroneous. The breakwater was only recommended as a desirable improvement *in futuro*, in reference to forming a capacious basin, which, if completed, would make La Ventosa an unexceptionable harbor for all kinds and classes of ships.

"La Ventosa now, in its natural condition, presents a safe and commodious harbor to vessels of all sizes. Locked on the west by Moro heights, and on the north by land, it is only open to the south and east, and it allows ingress and egress, irrespective of the quarter whence the wind blows. The depth at three hundred and fifty feet from the shore generally is seventeen feet. The bed of the sea recedes with a reg-

ular grade of two feet increase of depth, per one hundred feet horizontal; and the greatest observed distance between low and high water levels is six and a half feet. There is little doubt of the Bay La Ventosa affording a safer harbor than Vera Cruz, Mexico.

"Captain Mott, master of the steamship *Gold Hunter*, (now the '*Active*'), says:

"I am much pleased with this port, Ventosa. The holding ground is excellent, and the depth of thirty-six to forty-two feet all over the bay very convenient. I see nothing but a breakwater carried out five hundred to six hundred yards from the outer point of Moro rock to protect the landing from the surf to make it an excellent port. During the four days we have been here we have had two of fresh southerly winds and two of strong northers. The former did not agitate the sea much, and the latter, though blowing very strong, has not straightened out our chains. We are still riding by the bight, which is buried in clay bottom."

"Lieutenant Temple, of the United States navy, says:

"I am of the opinion La Ventosa is far safer and better than either Valparaiso, in Chili, or Monterey, in California—ports in constant use the whole year round. I speak from personal observation as well as from an examination of the several charts, and their similarity in outline has suggested the comparison,' &c.

"Under any circumstances affecting the question, it is clearly demonstrable that La Ventosa, at comparatively small expense, can be furnished with every facility for steamships to receive and discharge by a simple dock two hundred and fifty feet long; and we know it may be used without any artificial construction whatever to better advantage for embarking and landing passengers and freight than is the Bay of Panama; for at the latter place lighterage has to be used for an extent of two miles at least, whilst at the former, if the lighterage had to be used it would only be for an extent not to exceed three hundred feet.

"On the bar at the mouth of the Tehuantepec river, which enters Ventosa bay a short distance east of Point Morro, I observe the chart gives four to five feet depth of water. This would admit of light draught steamboats for lighterage purposes at this terminus, which would have the advantage, when once over the bar and into the river, of still-water for discharging and receiving." * * * *

TOBACCO TRADE OF BALTIMORE AND OF THE UNION.

We are indebted for the following particulars of the Tobacco Trade of Baltimore, to Charles De Ford & Co., of Baltimore. We have added to them some statistics of the Liverpool operations.*

At the commencement of last year, the stock of manufactured Tobacco was small compared with that of previous years; but in the face of an incoming crop, generally conceded to be a large one, and of excellent quality, prices were not sustained.

The trade manifested the same reluctance to purchase Tobacco manufactured during the first quarter, as they have for several years in succession. Such Tobacco is in less favor from year to year, and is left in factors' hands until it has sweated. Besides all the risk of deterioration by moulding, &c., to the manufacturer, it has an unfavorable influence on the same and on better grades, manufactured in the second quarter.

Although prices of the raw material continued to advance, there was no animation imparted to the trade until the third quarter, when some dealers from the South and West entered the market, and purchased freely of common and medium lbs., at the low prices current the first quarter—after being carried, with the risk to the manufacturer, of its becoming mouldy through the Spring. These sales were effected at an unfortunate time for the manufacturers, and probably would not have occurred had it been generally known by factors that, besides a curtailment in the manufacture of these grades, in Virginia, there was also a very large decrease of the same grades in the manufactures at the West, out of Kentucky and Missouri Leaf Tobacco.

The deficiency of Western manufactured Tobacco, forced dealers in that article to seek for their supplies from Tobacco manufactured in Virginia. Almost directly after these sales were made, prices of the same grades advanced three or four cents per lb., with a very active demand for the remainder of the year, absorbing the weekly receipts, which did not satisfy the wants of the trade.

As soon as the intelligence of a frost, on the 22d of September, reached the market, there was much excitement, and prices at once improved, and attained an advance of seven to eight cents over those current the first quarter. Since then the advanced prices have been fully maintained, with but little variation.

* Many elaborate papers upon the Tobacco growth and Commerce of the world have appeared in the pages of the Review for several years past, and we have condensed and combined them into a volume entitled Southern States—Sugar, Tobacco, &c. The trade of New Orleans and other ports, domestic and foreign, the various tariffs in force, have all been introduced. The subject has much interest with the American statesman.

Statement of Manufactured Tobacco, Baltimore.

	STOCK IN FACTORS' HANDS.	RECEIPTS.	STOCK FOR YEAR.	SALES.
	Packages.	Packages.	Packages.	Packages.
January 1st, 1847.....	17,200	34,000	51,200	37,200
" " 1848.....	17,000	54,000	71,000	48,000
" " 1849.....	23,000	46,000	69,000	60,000
" " 1850.....	9,000	50,000	59,000	47,000
" " 1851.....	12,000	51,000	63,000	50,000
" " 1852.....	13,000	70,000	83,000	61,000
" " 1853.....	22,000	94,000	116,000	81,000
" " 1854.....	35,000	65,000	100,000	83,000
" " 1855.....	17,000	82,000	99,000	84,000
" " 1856.....	15,000	98,000	113,000	96,000
" " 1857.....	17,000			
Average for ten years.....	18,000	64,444	82,420	64,720
Estimated as packages of $\frac{1}{4}$ boxes.				

The receipts were 16,000 packages *more* than the previous year, and 33,556 *more* than the average on the past ten years. The sales were the largest ever made in this market; exceeding the average of the past ten years by 31,280 packages. Had the market been supplied with more of those grades required by the trade, at least 10,000 packages more could have been sold at current prices.

During the past year, many of the *largest dealers* in the South and West have given our market a decided preference, purchasing freely before visiting other markets. To sustain the increasing trade, it is highly important that much larger shipments be made the present year of *common and medium* pound lumps.

Our market is free of mouldy and inferior Tobacco, with but little of common quality. The stock in factors' hands, consists of good and fine pound lumps; small supply of 5's and 10's lump of fine and good grades and common—stock of half lbs. nearly exhausted. Fancy Tobaccos have not met with much favor, as prices ruled so high that dealers were not willing to try experiments with new styles.

74,000 packages will cover the stocks in the principal markets, being 3,000 packages more than the previous year.

The trade is in a healthy condition, with every prospect for sales, in quantity, equal to those of last year. The small stock of the old crop remaining in Virginia at the close of the year, will force manufacturers to commence working Tobacco of the new crop earlier, and we fear much against their interest.

With the quantity of the raw material required, both by manufacturers and shippers, equal to that of last year, with about the same quantity of leaf Tobacco remaining in the United States and Europe as the preceding year; and with nearly the same stock of the manufactured article on hand, we

do not anticipate any decline in the prices of leaf or manufactured until several full crops are produced in succession.

There are some styles of manufactured Tobacco, even at the extreme prices of last year, that we fear will pay little or no profit to the manufacturer this year.

Exports of Leaf Tobacco from the Port of Baltimore, for the last ten years.

YEARS.	BREEMEN.	ROTTERDAM.	AMSTERDAM.	FRANCE.	ALL OTHER PLACES.	TOTAL.
1847....	22,967	7,819	11,388	9,413	1,895	53,482
1848....	12,787	7,910	3,403	4,959	131	58,890
1849....	18,821	13,783	8,725	9,562	1,033	51,924
1850....	15,864	7,814	5,978	8,177	6,540	44,368
1851....	12,654	9,694	4,154	2,327	5,295	34,124
1852....	22,860	11,473	5,067	7,679	5,278	52,357
1853....	18,702	10,395	9,980	5,380	4,685	49,142
1854....	18,061	7,407	5,583	10,180	4,006	45,237
1855....	9,102	9,510	5,810	7,526	4,444	36,392
1856....	20,612	14,215	7,779	4,891	8,301	55,798
Average,	17,243	10,002	6,786	7,000	4,600	48,171

Maryland and Ohio Leaf Tobacco.—We present a table of the inspections at, and exports from Baltimore, for the year 1856. Also a table of the inspections and exports for the past ten years, with the average for the same period. The inspections of Maryland Tobacco were 9,851 hhds. more than the previous year, and 9,077 hhds. more than the average for the past ten years.

The inspections of Ohio Tobacco show an increase of 2,862 hhds. compared with the previous year, and 864 hhds. less than the average for the past ten years. Nearly the whole stock of Maryland and Ohio is held by shippers and speculators.

Kentucky Leaf Tobacco.—The inspections show an increase of 419 hhds. more than the past year. Sales have been made in this market at prices that will compare favorably with those obtained in other markets, and should induce larger shipments. The market will bear 10,000 hhds., which could be safely increased from year to year.

Virginia Leaf Tobacco.—The inspections were 65,390 hhds., and 7,518 hhds. more than the previous year. The exports were 18,756 hhds. About 37,000 hhds. were taken by the manufacturers in Virginia, from that which had been inspected.

There remains in the United States, Great Britain, and on the Continent, about 56,000 hhds. of leaf Tobacco, showing 2,152 hhds. more in Europe than the previous year, and 7,000 hhds. more in the United States.

Statement exhibiting the number of Hhds of Tobacco exported from the United States for the past ten years, with the average price per Hhd. and gross value.

YEARS.	HHDs.	AVERAGE PRICE PER HHD.	VALUE.
1847.....	135,762	\$53.34	7,242,086
1848.....	130,665	57.78	7,551,122
1849.....	101,521	57.17	5,814,207
1850.....	145,629	68.28	9,951,023
1851.....	95,945	96.08	9,219,251
1852.....	137,097	73.17	10,031,283
1853.....	159,853	70.81	11,319,319
1854.....	126,107	79.42	10,016,046
1855.....	150,213	97.94	14,712,468
1856.....	124,826	97.95	12,221,843

A comparative statement of the Stocks, Imports and Deliveries of Tobacco in Liverpool, the last ten years.

STOCK 1st January.	IMPORTS.					DELIVERIES.					
	Virginia.	New Orleans.	Baltimore.	Other Ports.	Total.	Home use.	Ireland.	Export.	Coastwise.	Total.	
1847.....	19,961	5,698	4,512	156	10,366	4,965	2,788	2,054	2,067	11,874
1848.....	13,453	3,269	6,676	582	10,477	4,911	3,357	2,355	2,183	12,111
1849.....	16,119	5,785	5,888	1,587	13,205	4,945	2,970	2,781	2,273	12,969
1850.....	16,355	2,162	6,422	1,465	2,567	12,556	4,683	2,733	2,019	2,031	11,459
1851.....	17,452	1,680	5,982	1,224	1,205	10,041	5,253	2,329	2,697	2,233	12,452
1852.....	15,041	3,057	7,819	1,437	980	13,298	5,243	3,591	2,602	3,133	14,574
1853.....	13,760	2,723	3,495	620	2,410	14,273	4,855	3,126	2,843	3,191	14,015
1854.....	14,028	4,420	6,173	1,359	1,008	12,955	5,274	3,552	2,658	3,267	14,751
1855.....	12,227	5,043	3,817	1,345	582	11,087	4,516	3,357	2,480	2,796	13,099
1856.....	10,315	5,958	3,373	2,943	676	12,945	4,275	3,549	1,902	2,545	12,271

The total annual sales and their distribution at Liverpool were as follows:

	1856.	1855.	1854.	1853.	1852.	1851.	1850.
For Home use.....	4,275	4,516	5,274	4,855	5,243	5,253	7,556
For Ireland and Scotland.....	3,549	3,357	3,552	3,126	3,591	2,329	3,570
Coastwise.....	2,545	2,796	3,267	3,191	3,133	2,233	2,145
For exportation.....	1,902	2,480	2,658	2,843	2,602	2,637	3,312
Total sales.....	12,271	13,099	14,751	14,015	14,574	12,452	21,589

Deliveries at Liverpool out of store in 1856 were as follows:

	Virg. Leaf.	Virg. Stem'd.	West'n Leaf.	W. Stem'd.	Maryland.	Total hhds. &c.
For Home use.....	312	170	285	2,069	1,467	4,275
Ireland and Scotland.....	1,796	1,080	63	605	3,549
Coastwise.....	216	1,070	73	1,038	148	2,545
Exportation.....	1,294	53	538	2	15	1,902
	3,619	2,373	915	3,784	1,630	12,271

RULES IN THE MANAGEMENT OF A SOUTHERN ESTATE.*

(CONCLUDED.)

The object of all punishment should be—1st, for correction, to deter the offender from a repetition of an offence; and, 2d, for example to all others, showing them if they offend, they will likewise receive certain punishment. It is the *certainly*, more than the *severity*, of punishment that prevents crime. Never fail, therefore, to notice the breach of an established rule, and be equally unflinching in punishing the offender justly, according to the nature and circumstances of the offence. Never inflict punishment when in a passion, nor threaten it; but wait until perfectly cool, and until it can be done rather with sorrow than in anger.

Feel, and show that you feel, a kind and considerate regard for the negroes under your control. Never cruelly punish them, nor overwork them, or otherwise abuse them, but seek to render their situation as comfortable and contented as possible; see that their necessities be supplied, that their food and clothing be good and sufficient, their houses comfortable, and be kind and attentive to them in sickness and in old age.

The preservation of the health of the negroes, and the care of them when sick, will require your best attention; and to be ignorant of the best mode of discharging your duties in these particulars, is to be unfit for the responsible station you hold.

To preserve the health of the negroes, they must be well fed and clothed, and comfortably quartered. They should not be unduly exposed to wet and cold; to avoid which, suitable work should be provided within doors for bad weather. Pregnant women should be exempted from any thing but the lightest labor for several months before and after confinement; mothers be allowed time to attend to their infants until weaned. Cleanliness should be required of all in their clothing, houses, and yards; and the children should have a nurse—an experienced old woman—to look after and provide for them; and further, nothing can so much contribute to the good health of the negroes, as the strict enforcement of the system of discipline and police hereinafter prescribed.

It is strictly required of the manager, that he rise at the dawn of day every morning; that he ring a bell for the assembling of the hands; require all hands to repair to a certain and fixed place, in twenty minutes after the ringing of the bell, and there himself see that all are present, or notice absentees; after which the hands will receive their orders, and be started to their work under charge of their foreman.

* As enforced by Joseph Acklen, of Louisiana.

All sick negroes will be required to report to the manager at morning call, either in person, if able to do so, or through others, when themselves confined to the house.

Immediately after morning call, the manager will himself repair to the stable, together with the plowmen, and see to the proper feeding, cleaning, and gearing of the horses. He will also see to the proper feeding and care of the stock at the farm yard.

As soon as the horses and stock have been fed and otherwise attended to, the manager will take his breakfast; and immediately after, he will visit and prescribe for the sick, and then repair to the field to look after the hands, and he will remain with them as constantly as possible during every day.

The sick should be visited, not only every morning immediately after breakfast, but at such other times of the day and night as cases may require; suitable medicine, diet, and other treatment be prescribed, to be administered by the nurse, or, in more critical cases, the physician should be sent for. An intelligent and otherwise suitable woman will be appointed as a nurse upon each plantation, who will administer medicine and otherwise attend upon the sick.

There will be stated hours for the negroes to breakfast and dine, and those hours must be regularly observed. The manager will frequently inspect the meals as they are brought by the cook, see that they have been properly prepared, and that vegetables be at all times served with the meat and bread.

The manager will, every Sunday morning after breakfast, visit and inspect every quarter; see that the houses and yards are kept clean and in order, and that the families are dressed in clean clothes.

No negro shall marry another off, or not belonging to, the estate, without the consent of the owner. No negro on the estate will be permitted to marry a free negro. Men who have wives on different plantations from the one they are on, may visit their wives once during the week.

All running about at night is strictly prohibited, and any negro found out of his or her quarter after the last bell, without permission or good reason, must be punished.

No negro not belonging to the estate, must be permitted to come among and be with my negroes, without special permission.

No negro preachers but my own will be permitted to preach or remain on any of my places.

The regularly appointed minister for my places must preach on Sundays during daylight, or quit.

The negroes must not be suffered to continue their night meetings beyond ten o'clock.

They are all to be dealt with fairly and equally in their general supplies.

THE NEGROES.—The most entire submission and obedience is required on the part of every negro. If a negro resists when corrected, every other negro man present must assist in arresting him.

No negro will be allowed to use ardent spirits or have the same about his house.

Stealing, lying, adultery, fornication, profane language, fighting, and quarreling must be invariably punished.

No negro must leave the *estate* without a written permission from the manager, agent, or owner.

No negro shall trade, traffic, or barter with any flat or trading boat, without special written permission.

No negro will be allowed to raise stock of any kind.

No negro will be allowed to ride the horses, mules, or colts on the place, without permission; and the habit of riding about on Sundays and at night must be discontinued.

The negroes are required to remain on their respective plantations during the week, unless permitted to be absent, or to see the owner or agent. On Sundays they may visit the various plantations, but must first obtain leave of the overseer.

The negroes may occasionally have fresh meat, but the overseer must first notify the owner, if present, or the agent, of his wish to kill some of the stock for the negroes.

The negroes must be *certainly* punished for abusing the stock, losing their implements of work, leaving gates open, or defacing, breaking, or otherwise injuring the fences or houses on the plantation. By strictly and rigidly adhering to this rule, they will soon be careful and particular.

The negroes will not be permitted (and it is here particularly enjoined on the overseers not to suffer them) to have barrels, ashes, and chicken-coops, or trash, or filth of any kind under or about their houses. The quarters must be cleaned every week.

The negroes must *all* rise at the ringing of the first bell in the morning, and retire when the last bell rings at night, and not leave their houses after that hour, unless on business or called.

Women, when in-doors on account of pregnancy or convalescing from sickness, must spin or sew.

The men must work in the gardens or about the stables, until able to go to the field.

Every negro will be required, when he is done using a farming implement, to show it to the overseer, and then deposit it in the tool-house.

PUNISHMENT.—Whipping is the only punishment that will be permitted, except keeping the disobedient on their plantations. Whipping must never be cruel or severe, but may be repeated at proper intervals, until the most entire submission is obtained.

I object to having the skin cut, or my negroes marked in any way by the lash; and, with proper care, this can always be avoided. I will most certainly discharge any overseer for striking any of my negroes with a club or the butt of his whip, or in any way injuring one of my negroes. My negroes are not to be abused or injured in any way; and, at the same time, they must be kept under strict discipline, which can be accomplished by talking to them, and punishing moderately, but promptly and certainly. The rules and regulations in regard to the negroes, stock, implements, etc., must be read to the negroes every three months by the managers on the various places.

STOCK.—It is a practice too general to take little or no care of stock of any kind; and it is owing to this fact that the cattle, sheep and hogs, upon most plantations, have come to be of no sort of profit. This state of things must be altered, and special care must be taken to improve the stock of all kinds; and, as this business, like every other, should have its rules, some of these are here suggested:

1. Of the Horses—Clean, dry and well ventilated stables are essentially necessary, in order to keep horses in health and good order. The dung, urine and litter should be cleaned out every day and fresh straw supplied for beds. The food should be sound and abundant. The horses should be *regularly* watered and fed, and as regularly curried and rubbed, and their feet and legs washed and kept sound. The stables should be securely locked at night, both to prevent the horses being rode at night, and also to prevent their being robbed of their food—things more often done than is generally suspected.

The team of horses upon every place furnishes the chief *motive power*; if, then, the team be in low condition, or otherwise out of order, all operations must drag and be behind hand, and illy performed; besides, horses in bad order are twice as subject to disease and death as when fat and in health, besides being a disgrace to any manager, and an eye-sore to their owner.

It is also necessary that the gear should be kept in good order, well oiled and otherwise ready for use. It must, therefore, be well taken care of, repaired, cleaned, and greased, whenever necessary. Train or fish oil will keep off the rats, and is best for the preservation of the leather.

In order to establish a strict responsibility among the plow-

men for the care of the horses and gear, the teams will be divided, and certain specified horses and gear given in charge to each plowman, who will be held accountable for the same.

A curry-comb will be provided for each pair of horses.

The plowmen must not be allowed to gall their horses, or to split their mouths with the bits, as is so generally done, to the lasting injury and disfigurement of the horses; and severe punishment must be used if necessary, to prevent such gross abuse. The teams should never be actually at work over ten hours a day; the balance of the time should be given to rest, feeding, and careful attendance at the stable. As much work can be done in ten hours, if the horses are in order, as in twelve or fourteen, worked in the ordinary slow and out-of-heart style.

The horses must be fed, and are growing older every day; keep them at work, also, every day, (Sundays and rainy days excepted,) when the land is too wet to plow, hauling may be done, so as to keep the teams always at work. By observing this rule, the plowing and hauling will always be well ahead; less team will cultivate a given amount of crop, and with more ease, than a larger team, half-kept and half-worked, after the ordinary manner.

IMPLEMENTS.—The rule of having a place for every thing and keeping every thing in its place, must be strictly enforced in regard to wagons, carts, plows, hoes, gear, and all other plantation implements.

Besides keeping all implements in their proper places and to their proper uses, they must at all times be kept in order for use. And to effect this, as soon as any thing is broken or otherwise out of order, let it be carried forthwith to the carpenter's or smith's shop and put in order, and thence returned to its proper place in the tool-room or shed; and let it not be left, as is often done, out of place and out of order until the very moment it is wanted for use; and these things, when not in use, must be kept under the shelter.

In order to establish some accountability amongst the negroes for the care and preservation of the implements, there must be a special assignment of certain implements to each negro; from the wagon and gear, carts, yokes, etc., down to the smaller tools, such as hoes, axes, etc., and such smaller tools as cannot readily be distinguished the one from the other of the same sort, will be marked (either upon the iron or the wood) with the first letter of the name of the negro to whom they have been assigned, and a written list of the assignment will be kept, and the hands will be required to use each his own tools, and no others, and be held responsible for their preservation, and for returning them to their proper places.

DITCHES, FENCES, TURNROWS, &c.—Upon good drainage mainly depends the successful cultivation of these places, and I enjoin it particularly on each overseer to keep his ditches well worked and clean, and open, so that the water may pass off freely, and without obstruction. The ditches should be worked and kept in order with the cultivation of the crop.

The fences must be kept in good repair and clean, and free from undergrowth and briars. Nothing adds more to the looks of well cultivated lands than clean turnrows and good fences, well trimmed. I want these matters well attended to, and the sloughs and bayous all cut down and kept clean. They are the natural drains of the land, and where the sides are sloping, they answer in place of ditches, and will gradually fill up.

IN-DOOR WORK IN BAD WEATHER.—When the hands cannot work out, they must clean up the stables, mend and grease their gear, and sharpen and put in order their implements, clean up the quarters, pile the manure, etc.; the cribs, ox lots, and stables require much work to keep them in good order, and when the weather is rainy or bad, they can do this work, and I desire it to be particularly attended to.

THE NEW TARIFF.

At last we have had a step in the right direction, and a reduction of the Tariff, a measure so long and laboriously discussed, is one of the closing acts of the late Administration. Whether the result will be a decline in the revenue, seems not altogether clear, since, as remarked by Dr. Adam Smith, in questions of this sort, two and two as often make one as four. A decline of twenty millions is, however, estimated. Perhaps the greatest evil under which our Government has labored has been an excess of revenue. It has led to profligate and corrupt expenditure, and, if continued, would essentially demoralize the country. It is a system of robbery of the many for the benefit of the few; and the most robbed and the least benefited is, of necessity, the South.

The articles of the Tariffs are arranged in certain schedules, and will thus compare as lettered:

	1846.		1857.
A.....	100 per cent.	30 per cent.
B.....	40 "	30 "
C.....	30 "	24 "
D.....	25 "	19 "
E.....	20 "	15 "
F.....	15 "	12 "
G.....	10 "	8 "
H.....	5 "	4 "

Schedules A and B embrace such articles as brandies, cordials, glass, segars, and wines, which now pay 30 per cent., though varying under the Tariff of 1846 from 40 up to 100 per cent.

In schedule C are, among others :

Caps, hats, muffs, and tippets of fur, and all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material. Caps, gloves, leggings, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames, worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for. Carpets, carpeting, hearth rugs, bedsides, and other portions of carpeting, being either Aubusson, Brussels, ingrain, Saxony, Turkey, Venitian, Wilton, or any other similar fabric. Carriages and parts of carriages. Clothing, ready-made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, seamstress, or manufacturer. Coach and harness furniture of all kinds. Cutlery of all kinds. Diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations of precious stones, when set in gold, silver, or other metal. Earthen, China, and stone ware, and all other wares, composed of earthy and mineral substances, not otherwise provided for. Hats and bonnets, for men, women, and children, composed of straw, satin straw, chip, grass, palmleaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone, or other material, not otherwise provided for. Hemp, unmanufactured, honey. Iron, in bars, bloom, bolts, loops, pigs, rods, slabs, or other form, not otherwise provided for. Vessels of cast-iron. Japanned wares of all kinds, not otherwise provided for. Jewelry, real or imitation. Manufactures composed wholly of cotton, which are bleached, printed, painted, or dyed, and de laines. Manufactures and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for. Manufactures of paper, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for. Manufactures of wood, or of which wood is a component part, not otherwise provided for. Muskets, rifles, and other fire-arms. Sugar of all kinds, syrup of sugar. Tobacco, unmanufactured.

In schedule D are, among others :

Cotton laces, cotton insertings, cotton trimming laces, cotton laces and braids. Floss silks, feather beds, feathers for beds, and down of all kinds. Manufactures, and articles of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for. Manufactures of worsted, or of which worsted shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for. Woollen and worsted yarn.

In schedule E are, among others :

Blankets of all kinds. Boards, planks, staves, laths, scantling, spars, hewn and sawed timber, and timber to be used in building wharves. Fish, foreign, whether fresh, smoked, salted, dried, or pickled, not otherwise provided for. Indian corn and corn meal. Leather, tanned, bend, or sole, not otherwise provided for. Leather, upper, of all kinds, not otherwise provided for. Lead, in pigs, bars, or sheets. Linens of all kinds. Paints, dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for. Periodicals and other works in course of printing and republication in the United States. Rice or paddy. Spirits of turpentine. Wheat and wheat flour. Window glass, broad, crown, or cylinder.

In schedule F are, among others :

Diamonds, glaziers', set or not set. Silk, raw, not otherwise provided for. Steel, in bars, cast, sheer, or German.

In schedule G are, among others :

Books printed, magazines, pamphlets, periodicals, and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for. Engravings or plates, bound or unbound. Fruits, green, ripe, or dried. Furs, undressed, when on the skin. Watches. Wood—namely, cedar, lignumvitæ, ebony, box, granadilla, mahogany, rosewood, satin wood, and all cabinet woods.

In schedule H are, among others :

Articles not in a crude state, used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for. Bristles. Raw hides and skins of all kinds, whether dried, salted, or pickled, not otherwise provided for. Spices of all kinds.

The free-list is increased by the addition of some forty articles, which seems to be wise legislation, and has been frequently urged by us upon the Government. In this way commerce is freed from a part of its fetters. The policy should be to collect the revenue on as few articles as possible, and let them be articles of the most universal consumption.

The following is the free-list :

All books, maps, charts, mathematical, nautical instruments, philosophical apparatus, and all other articles whatever imported for the use of the United States. All philosophical apparatus, instruments, books, maps, and charts; statues, statuary, busts, and casts of marble, bronze, alabaster, or plaster of Paris; paintings and drawings, etchings; specimens of sculpture; cabinets of coins, medals, gems, and all collections of antiquities: *Provided*, The same be specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for philosophical or literary purposes or for the encouragement of the fine arts; or for the use or by the order of any college, academy, school, or seminary of learning in the United States. Animal carbon, bone black. Animals, living, of all kinds. Argol or crude tartar. Articles, in a crude state, used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for. Bark, Peruvian. Bells, when old, or bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured. Berries, nuts, flowers, plants, and vegetables used exclusively in dyeing or in composing dyes, but no article shall be classed as such that has undergone any manufacture. Bismuth, bitter apples. Boiling cloths. Bones, burnt, and bone dust. Books, maps, and charts imported by authority of the Joint Library of Congress for the use of the Library of Congress: *Provided*, That if, in any case, a contract shall have been made with any bookseller, importer, or other person for books, maps, or charts, in which contract the bookseller, importer, or other person aforesaid shall have paid the duty or included the duty in said contract, in such case the duty shall not be remitted. Brass, in bars and pigs. Brass, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured. Brazil wood, braziletto, and all other dye-woods in sticks. Bullion, gold and silver. Burr-stones, wrought or unwrought, but unmanufactured. Cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of antiquities. Coffee and tea when imported direct from the place of their growth or production in American vessels or in foreign vessels entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties, tonnage, and other charges. Coffee, the growth or production of the possessions of the Netherlands, imported from the Netherlands in the same manner. Coins, gold, silver, and copper, copper ore. Copper, when imported for the United States Mint. Copper, in pigs or bars. Copper, when old and fit only to be remanufactured. Cotton. Cutch. Dragon's blood. Felt, adhesive, for sheathing vessels. Flax, unmanufactured. Garden seeds and all other seeds for agricultural, horticultural, medicinal, and manufacturing purposes, not otherwise provided for. Glass, when old and fit only to be remanufactured. Goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, exported to a foreign country and brought back to the United States in the same condition as when exported, upon which no drawback or bounty has been allowed: *Provided*, That all regulations to ascertain the identity thereof, prescribed by existing laws, or which may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be complied with. Guano. Household effects, old and in use, of persons or families from foreign countries, if used abroad by them and not intended for any other person or persons or for sale. Ice. Ivory, unmanufactured. Junk, old. Linseed, but not embracing flaxseed. Madder root, madder ground or prepared. Maps and charts. Models of inventions and other

improvements in the arts: *Provided*, That no article or articles shall be deemed a model or improvement which can be fitted for use. Oakum. Oil, spermaceti whale, and other fish, of American fisheries, and all other articles the produce of such fisheries. Paintings and statuary. Palm leaf, unmanufactured. Personal and household effects (not merchandise) of citizens of the United States dying abroad. Plaster of Paris or sulphate of lime, unground. Platina, unmanufactured. Rags of whatever material except wool. Ratans and reeds, unmanufactured. Sheathing copper, but no copper to be considered such and admitted free except in sheets of forty-eight inches long and fourteen inches wide and weighing from fourteen to thirty-four ounces the square foot. Sheathing metal, not wholly or in part of iron, ungalvanized. Shingle bolts and stave bolts. Silk, raw, or as reeled from the cocoon, not being doubled, twisted, or advanced in manufacture in any way. Specimens of natural history, mineralogy, or botany. Substances expressly used for manures. Tin, in pigs, bars, or blocks. Trees, shrubs, bulbs, plants, and roots, not otherwise provided for. Wearing apparel in actual use and other personal effects, (not merchandise,) professional books, implements, instruments, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment of persons arriving in the United States: *Provided*, That this exemption shall not be construed to include machinery or other articles imported for use in any manufacturing establishment or for sale. Sheep's wool, manufactured, of the value at the port of exportation of twenty cents per pound or less, and hair of the alpaca, the goat, and other like animals, unmanufactured: *Provided*, That any wool of the sheep or hair of the alpaca, the goat, and other like animals which shall be imported in any other than the ordinary condition as now and heretofore practiced, or which shall be changed in its character for the purpose of evading the duty or which shall be reduced in value by the intentional admixture of dirt or any foreign substance to twenty cents per pound or less, shall be subject to pay a duty of twenty-four per centum ad valorem, any thing in this act to the contrary notwithstanding.

FREE TRADE AND DIRECT TAXATION.

In one of the numbers of the Review, for 1856, we published an article, prepared by the Editor many years since, upon the general subject of taxation, reviewing the different systems in force, and in particular asserting the evils of the indirect or impost system.

Since that time the subject has received the attention of a Convention comprising nearly a thousand delegates, from every part of the South. The business committee of the Convention, consisting of two leading members, selected from each of the delegations of the several States, reported almost unanimously a series of resolutions, as drawn up by Simpson Fouché, of Georgia, among which was the following. (See Review for January, 1856):

Resolved, That a well digested system of direct ad valorem taxation is the proper remedy for all the evils inherent in and inseparable from the system of imposts.

Resolved, That the abandonment of the system of imposts and the establishment of absolute free trade and moderate direct taxation, will revive Southern commerce, lead to direct importations, and thus accomplish the great objects at which we aim; to be followed as a necessary consequence by the establishment of lines of steamers, railroads, and all other accessories of active, expanded, and lucrative commerce.

Although these resolutions were laid upon the table against the votes of the majority of the Georgia, South Carolina, and Louisiana delegates, and of respectable minorities among the delegates of other States, such was the anxiety of the body to give them a fuller discussion, and such was the influence exerted by the discussions upon them, that they were soon after taken from the table by a very large vote and referred to a committee, to be reported upon at the Convention, in August, next, at Knoxville. The committee consists of the following gentlemen, and may they meet the question boldly:

John A. Calhoun, S. C.; Simpson Fouché, Geo.; W. L. Yancey, Ala.; John A. Quitman, Miss.; Wm. Caine, Fla.; Pierre Soule, La.; Hugh McLeod, Texas; Thomas L. Clingman, N. C.; Beale H. Richardson, Md.; James A. Seddon, Va.; D. A. Atchison, Mo.; Hon. R. W. Johnson, Ark.; A. V. Brown, Tenn.; James A. Bayard, Del.

In the Convention, Mr. Bethune, of Georgia, made one of the most powerful arguments, illustrated with statistical tables, against the tariff system.

At the last session of Congress, the following debate took place, and was published in the Globe:

MR. CAMPBELL, of Ohio. Do I understand the gentleman from South Carolina to advocate a system of free trade and direct taxation?

MR. BOYCE. It is just the very thing I am after.

MR. CAMPBELL. I desire to know, because now the gentleman from South Carolina has an opportunity of distinguishing himself, and of taking a bold position on this great question. He has offered a substitute for the pending bill, and if he advocates the doctrine of free trade and direct taxation, let him so modify his substitute, and he will be able to carry it through this House. Modify it on the basis of representation. I will vote for it in preference to a horizontal scale or a *pro rata* reduction of the schedules of the tariff of 1846.

MR. BOYCE. I shall be delighted to receive the gentleman from Ohio as a recruit, and rally him under the banner of free trade, for I do not know anything which can contribute more to the grandeur and prosperity of the country than free trade, absolute and unlimited—than giving to every man the privilege of selling where he can sell dearest, and buying where he can buy cheapest. It is the principle of Republicanism. Why should we be in leading strings to this or that interest? I have no doubt but that the prosperity of the country will be greatly endangered by the adoption of the bill submitted by the gentleman from Ohio. But I am glad to see him to-day take position in favor of free trade. I say sell all the custom-houses, and let everything come in free.

MR. CAMPBELL. Will the gentleman modify his substitute?

MR. BOYCE. I will: but when it is modified will the gentleman go with me for its adoption?

MR. CAMPBELL. I will in the alternative stated. I am a protectionist in principle; and so long as the revenue to defray the expenses of the Federal Government is raised by imposts, I am for such a discrimination as will incidentally give protection to the industrial interests of my own country against all the countries of the earth. But if the gentlemen from the South will propose the selling out of all the custom-houses, and resort to free trade and direct taxation, I tell them that my constituents are prepared to meet them. Therefore I suggest to him, that until he comes forward boldly with his proposition, it ill becomes him to charge that the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means lacks independence and spirit on this question.

Mr. BOYCE. I am delighted at the remarks of the gentleman from Ohio. Nothing would give me more pleasure than to make the modification in my amendment he has suggested. I must confess that I did not expect to meet with such a concession at his hands. I inferred from the report of the Committee of Ways and Means that the gentleman was opposed to me on this question. I imagined that he and those who act with him would think any proposition looking to free trade was a sort of madness clutching at the stars, and making love to the moon. I therefore presented no such proposition of perfect free trade; but the proposition I have made is a step in that direction.

In our opinion the minds of the people of the South are coming to be much more united upon this subject of free trade, and associations should be formed every where among us for its promotion. Southern products can only thus share equally with Northern in the protection received from Government. Vast and corrupt expenditures can only thus be prevented. Even the little protection vouchsafed to the sugar fields, can any doubt, is doomed to speedy overthrow in Congress? See the enormous appropriations annually for custom-houses, situated in the back woods, increasing from to year to year. We shall hereafter present some interesting statistics upon this point. Let the South unite upon this movement. There are indications that the Northwest will go with her. Her interests lie in that direction. (Note the remarks of Mr. Campbell—above.) We have lost the sympathies of the Northwest in grounding our arms upon this subject, in which she has always been alive, and driven her over to our enemies. A union of the South and Northwest is practicable here, and it will be strong enough to break down, perhaps forever, those powerful coalitions which at present threaten disruption of the Union. The following is from the Treasury Report:

COST OF COLLECTING THE CUSTOMS.

Years.	Construction, &c. custom-houses.	Revenue ves- sels, cost, &c.	Other expenditures.	Revenue collected.	Collection exp's on Pacific coast.
1825.....		\$139,175 17	\$750,127 76	\$31,903,875 73
1826.....		116,812 44	770,687 04	26,350,269 09
1827.....		197,773 09	782,045 13	28,190,833 33
1828.....	\$6,400 00	121,899 31	810,194 32	30,187,701 56
1829.....	9,131 93	145,076 45	803,591 13	22,533,290 37
1830.....	30,740 54	168,133 52	836,976 85	28,636,124 49
1843.....	43,408 35	272,096 18	1,731,368 69	33,223,111 36
1840.....	235,987 47	274,931 83	1,764,630 39	31,205,956 50
1850.....	533,633 60	164,908 30	2,025,023 53	40,429,457 59	\$119,818 93
1851.....	244,969 47	199,299 61	1,186,653 12	49,365,278 05	700,201 74
1852.....	531,491 23	216,024 30	1,760,214 97	49,174,379 70	1,108,943 13
1853.....	530,080 35	215,133 40	2,073,565 29	53,735,919 41	824,720 25
1854.....	679,408 25	238,794 32	2,244,235 67	65,147,455 32	735,408 65
1855.....	1,586,340 92	224,333 74	2,395,134 10	53,912,547 93	717,511 44
1856.....	1,415,040 49	248,426 37	2,566,996 50	63,814,393 37	532,968 95
	9,116,937 77	7,670,045 63	43,560,190 13	1,053,116,676 55	4,793,963 17

REVOLUTION IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY.*

AN EXPOSITION OF THE ADVANTAGES AND MERITS OF THE INVENTION OF GEORGE G. HENRY, FOR THE MANUFACTURE OF SEED COTTON INTO IMPROVED YARNS, BY A NEW COMBINATION OF MACHINERY, DISPENSING WITH THAT WHICH IS DESTRUCTIVE OF THE LENGTH AND STRENGTH OF THE FIBRE; LESSENING WASTE AND CHARGES; ENORMOUSLY REDUCING THE RISK OF FIRE ON PLANTATIONS AND ELSEWHERE, BY THE LINT BEING THUS IMMEDIATELY CONVERTED FROM THE GIN INTO YARNS, AND CAUSING THE SAME CAPITAL, POWER, AND LABOR, NOW EMPLOYED TO RAISE AND GIN, TO ALSO SPIN IT, SUBSTITUTING BALES OF YARN FOR MARKET, FOR BALES OF COTTON, AND BY WHICH THE PLANTERS WILL MORE THAN DOUBLE THEIR INCOME, THE AVERAGE PRICE OF YARNS BEING 150 PER CENT. ABOVE THE AVERAGE PRICE OF COTTON.

The effect of lessening charges—Henry's Patent and observations on it—Philosophy of his invention, and peculiar characteristics of Cotton—Mode of, and machinery for, ginning and packing cotton—Risk of fire in the process—The bale and its incidents—The process of, and machinery for, spinning at the Factories—Ruinous effects of same on fibre described—Surat Cotton mixed up with ours—To spin ours removes its competition from ours—Fire by friction—The Devil, Picker, or Willow—Spreader and Beater, or Lap Machine—Mode of arranging his new combination of machinery—His improvement in the process of ginning and spinning—Its simplicity and preservative effects described—The Planter as a ginner, a manufacturer and a spinner, advanced a step—Time to gin and spin in—Spinning room, best style of, suggested—New principle of action introduced—Power, Capital, and Labor—English claims to, in contrast with ours—Profits, etc.—Risk of fire greatly lessened—Freight and other charges diminished, and reference to effect of—Cost of Machinery for planters of different magnitudes—Number and quality of operatives for the superintendent—Price of Yarns today and Cotton—His terms for use of privileges—Advantages of agencies not to be realized without some effort—The incidents of opening a plantation and preparing to spin, compared—To manufacture Yarns not a source of anxiety, but a diversion—Concluding glance at advantages—Personal—The Revolution.

What I am required to say to the cotton planter himself, in relation to my improvement, and who alone can apply it, might be very sententious, but courtesy to the general curiosity manifested concerning it, and the immediate interest all classes have in it, through the expansion of commerce that must flow from it, as well, indeed, as justice to those whose business we transfer from abroad to our plantations, claim from me, and make it proper I should give a general and minute description of it, but which I promise will, upon the one hand, firmly establish the planter in the possession of his natural rights and profits, and prepare those, on the other, to yield a manufacture which they already perceive and confess they cannot compete with us in.

Before I proceed with this description, I must premise that the expenses and losses by damages and waste which a bale of cotton is subjected to from the time it leaves the plantation until it reaches Manchester, and is converted into yarns, the planter in effect *pays or loses*, although he may sell it at his gin house, and receive pay for its actual weight there, which arises in this way: The price paid for it in the country is predicated on the price or prospects of the price in our ports, and the prices in our ports on those of Liverpool, and that in Liverpool on the price the manufacturer at Manchester will give for it, and the manufacturer at Manchester predicates the price he will give for it on the weight of yarn the 100 pounds of cotton will produce, or, in other words, deducts the waste occurring during its manufacture from the price he will pay. So that every expense, charge, and loss by damage or waste, that occurs from the time the cotton leaves the plantation until it is converted into yarns in Manchester, is deducted by the buyers. But, say you, how does the buyer arrive at this? It is by long experience and repeated calculations, he arrives at the average of these items, and which he deducts; and it is remarkable how unerring they appear to be.

For example, if you could shoot one hundred pounds of cotton to Liverpool, and lay your hands on the 7½ pence a pound it brings there now, in English currency, you would get about 15 cents for what is commanding here about 12

* In regard to this important matter, and the proposals of Mr. Henry, see our remarks editorially, near the close of the present number of the Review.—Editor.

cents. Well, for this one hundred pounds of cotton in Liverpool, you see very plainly, the manufacturers would give more than $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound for it, if each pound would make a pound of yarn, but as it takes a pound and three-sixteenths of cotton to make one of yarn, he only gives for one and three-sixteenths what he would willingly give for just a pound, if the pound of cotton would make a pound of yarn. And thus it is, you are immediately and individually interested in a process, which would alone result in a greater number of pounds of yarn, from a given number of pounds of cotton.

And, in presenting the mode my combination operates, it will be as evident to you there must be a great saving of waste, as it will be, your yarns must be better than can be made by the present processes of the manufactories, and also, as the manufacture can *only* be conducted where the seed cotton is, your many other advantages will secure you against competition.

MR. HENRY'S PATENT is for an improvement in the manufacture of Cotton Yarns effected by a new combination and arrangement of machinery adapted and so modified as to convert two manufactures into one, those of Ginning and Spinning, by which he manufactures seed cotton into yarns of every size, and excludes several machines now used in the existing processes, as separate ones, and which to them are indispensable, excluding rooms, and by the thus excluding those machines, rooms, &c., I save the labor of attending these machines, the power required to move them, the injury imposed on the fibre by their operations, with a great saving of factory waste, resulting in altogether superior yarn, and making the capital, locations, rooms, power, and labor that now produces and gins, to also spin it.

It specifies, I may adopt any gin and any spinning machinery, we may prefer to arrange in the combination to take the cotton from the gin, or through the "preparation" and spin it into yarns by a continuous process.

Hence whatsoever make of gins the planter prefers, I can have modified and take into my combination.

And I may also, and shall order for them the most approved spinning machinery of the day, and will be ready and willing to adopt any ascertained improvement, which may be hereafter devised or invented, in any of the machines of the spinning series.

WASTE AND SUPERIORITY.—It is admitted in the Patent Office, from the investigations amongst the very scientific and intelligent gentlemen engaged in it, that by my improvement, at least ten per cent. of the factory waste occurring, would be economised, and it was also conceded to be self-evident, that my yarns must be much stronger, and for the very substantial causes, that as my gin cards the cotton, and while it is already straight, fleecy, and open, if I submit it to the action of the spreader and beater, (which for lower numbers will be unnecessary,) the trash not having been seized and clinched in the fibres by their having been pressed in the bales, and other handling, the impurities, by their greater weight than these light and delicate fibres, are easily thrown from them, so when the laminae are taken to the carders, the filaments already straight comparatively, the revolutions of the cards will not be retarded by the pulling of tangled fibres, admitting them to dress more in a day, with less violence and injury to the filaments.

In modifying the machines to produce yarn from seed cotton, I must beg you clearly to observe (that you may understand) we have no mechanical difficulty to overcome; we have simply to make the gin itself form a lap, or that it shall form the lint into a sheet to be taken into and through the spreader and beater, from whence it always comes out in a lamina.

Well, if the spreader and beater now bring the cotton out in a sheet and forms a lamina of it, the planter will have no difficulty to arrive at the certainty, that the same mechanical arrangement that is now in the spreader and beater, can be inserted into the gin, which will make the gin do, what in this respect the spreader and beater does.

Having your lap you are ready to go on without difficulty, as in the sequel will appear.

To appreciate fully the philosophy of my improvement to comprehend what produces it, and how it is effected, I will describe the

PECULIAR NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF COTTON.—We all know that the fibre is very fine and delicate, we see it has twists in it and it appears instinctive with life. It is serrated with a downy hook and coming in contact with anything soft, this causes it to seize it, and it releases its hold only by an effort, and it is this tenacity which, making the fibres cling one to the other, gives it such value as a material of manufacture, and destroying this, its strength is lost. Endeavor to draw a single fibre from a sample and it brings with it many others.

In Baine's History of the Cotton manufacture of Great Britain, (pages 536, 537,) is given a very interesting and accurate description of the cotton fibre.

He says, "when viewed through a powerful instrument—as the improved achromatic microscope of Ploessl, of Vienna—they appear to be transparent, glassy tubes, flattened and *twisted around their own axes.*" That "a section of the filament resembles the figure 8;" (and must, therefore, be twisted around its own axis;) "and that the twists or turns in a fibre are from 300 to 800 in an inch." Here is food for deep thought and close consideration; 800 twists in an inch, throws itself in the form of the figure 8—twists itself around its own axis.

We all know that to the length of the staple is to be ascribed much of the value of the textile. Sea Island, though having a staple very little longer than our cotton, is worth several times as much per pound. So of linen and silk—it is their longer staple that gives them their strength and increased value.

This being the nature and characteristic of cotton, after it is ginned or lays awhile, or is pressed in bales, it mats, tangles, and most intricately interweaves its fibres into a mass, and what trash or motes are in it, are clinched in their serrated embraces—and to disentangle and straighten out the fibres, and to throw out this trash a system of powerful machines have been invented, which are indispensable to the factories, as now run, but in the nature of their operations are destructive to the fibre.

You will, therefore, appreciate the importance of an invention by which the necessity for these machines and their violent operations are superseded.

PROCESS AND MACHINERY USED TO GIN AND PACK COTTON.—All who have any knowledge of the origin of the cotton culture in this country, are aware that great efforts and inquiry were made for some rapid mode of separating the lint from the seed of cotton; and when Whitney applied the principle of the Card, in the shape of the Saw Gin, for its separation, it proved so effective that the present extended culture and trade in the article has doubtless been the result.

This Gin is and can be made in effect, to be a Carder. The ribs through which the saws project, hold the seed cotton, and as the saws revolve, they take off the lint, while the brush, placed back of the saws, revolving more rapidly, very nicely, by its centrifugal force, brushes the fleecy and flexible fibre into a lint room below. It is here pressed down frequently until enough has been ginned to require twelve to fifteen of the best hands on the plantation a day to pack it. It is taken from the lint room in baskets to the box of the screw, into which, by hands, feet, or pestles, it is jammed, until enough to make the bale is so placed, when it is pressed by the screw, and becomes a bale.

The House is raised two stories, and the Gin put in the upper, that the cotton can be thrown into a room below, and the power is usually applied from a wheel running below, worked by mules. One to eight Gin stands are fixed in a gin house; some are worked by water, and many are finding steam power the most economical, and are adopting it. Even the rude gin houses of the smaller planters are costly, as they are required to be made of heavy timbers, to support the second story. The building of the cotton screw is attended with both great labor to get the heavy timbers, and much danger in its erection. It is generally a threatening and dangerous structure, too, and costs, in money, board, and plantation labor, three to four hundred dollars.

The rapidity with which the gin and brush wheels are caused to revolve, in order to get through with the cotton in the shortest possible time, and constant flow from the gin into the lint room of this oily and fleecy article, with the possibility of dirt or grit falling or being driven into the journals of the cylinders, force us to some apprehension of fire, and to strike a single spark involves the entire contents in ruin, and which would be also the case if a spark were applied to the lint room from the outside. Though fires are of rare occurrence,

we merely notice the fact to show the process is not entirely exempt from danger.

But to return to the bale of cotton. It is in its condition as ginned cotton, so inflammable that, if on board of a steamboat a fire breaks out, or in a warehouse, the entire contents are almost certain of immediately burning up. Hence insurance is very high on it on the boats and in the warehouses. Shipped to the ports, the buyer and seller must sample and weigh it. It must be turned in and out; be compressed to further reduce its size for the ship. And following it to the foreign port, it passes through a similar ordeal, and reaches the manufactory with scarcely a vestige often, of the baling it started with; and the spinner takes it to

THE PICKING ROOM.—This room is, in all the recently constructed factories, built off some distance from the main factory, from the number of fires which have originated in it, and caused the total destruction of the factory, cotton on hand, injury to the machinery, etc. A connection is so arranged, that in the event of a fire, this can be instantly knocked away, and the room and its contents are abandoned to the fire. This room is intended to receive and open the bales of cotton, and to do there, what they make a great noise about if an American planter happens to have it occur in an occasional bale of his cotton—that is, to well mix up several sorts of cotton, to run it through a machine they call in England “a Devil,” from its nature. Here they mix their short staple India cotton with American, which gives the Surat cotton a value it otherwise would not command, as, for want of length of staple, it would have no comparative durability, if it were even possible to manufacture it by machinery into yarn. As we have before remarked, the cotton having become matted and tangled by having been baled, must be opened before it can be straightened, and made parallel by the carders—and the impurities must be thrown out. To effect this, the “Devil” is resorted to as a faithful adjunct. To aid in the description of this machine, I will introduce what is said about—

FIRE BY FRICTION.—Mr. Baird, in his “Cotton Spinner,” page 63, says, “It is a well known fact that the majority of fires which have occurred in Cotton Factories, had their origin in the Picking Rooms.” Further, “it is necessary the Picker should be driven at a great speed, or it will not open the cotton and drive it out in a proper manner.” “They will not operate properly at a less speed than 1,600 revolutions in a minute.”

THE DEVIL, PICKER, OR WILLOW, is an iron machine, armed with iron teeth, and its iron-toothed bars revolve sixteen hundred times in a minute in some, and four thousand times in others. It partially opens the matted cotton and throws it into a lint room.

When the characteristics of this exquisite staple are considered, as has been presented, it will be obvious that these filaments which have become so matted, have knitted themselves so together, and are so firmly held by their corkscrew twists, that to be thus violently tossed, thrown, and worked about, to open them, as has been described, very many of them must be broken, mutilated, and, indeed, reduced to a powder.

By the operations of this Devil or Picker, very much of the important but delicate clothing the fibre is coated with, is stripped off, and losing that, the remainder is without elasticity and flexibility, and merely occupies a space, without affording the natural strength to the yarn it would do, were it not displaced; and by the operation of this machine much of the waste of the factory arises. And it is the velocity of its revolutions, with the grit that falls into its journals, that strikes the fire and makes them the terror of manufactories and insurance offices, burning every thing up.

This machine, so injurious to the fibre, in the first place, and so dangerous in the second, yet so indispensable to the present factory process, I totally exclude from mine, as will be further referred to hereafter.

Let us examine now the nature of the machine used in the Spinning Factories called the

LAP, OR SPREADER AND BEATER.—We have seen above that the Devil casts the cotton into a lint room. It is weighed from this on to an endless apron of a

Spreader and Beater, or Lap machine. The design of this machine is to further open and disentangle the cotton, and further free it from the trash and impurities which the Devil did not cast out. To effect this, it is caused, at the factories, to be run with great speed—say twenty-one to twenty-two hundred revolutions in a minute—as the cotton having impurities still in it, and as yet not unmatted and disentangled, they must drive it thus to disentangle and open it, and to make the fibres let go their hold on the trash. After passing through this machine with three Beaters, at some factories, not finding the cotton in a sufficiently opened and cleansed condition to go to the Cards, the Lap is run through another Lap Machine.

The Lap from this last set of Beaters is now taken to the

CARDS.—The design of these machines is to lay the filaments parallel, preparatory to passing the cotton to the drawing and doubling frames, and to arrest any remaining impurities which have eluded the Gin on the plantation, or the Devil or the Spreader and Beater of the factory. In some factories two sets of Cards—the preparation and the finishing carder—are used. After the cotton is straightened and disentangled, it is passed from the Carders to the Drawing Frames—then on to the Roving and thence to the Spinning Frames, and there it is finished—put through a press and baled. And after all this the weaver is very much annoyed by moles and irregularities he has to take out after the cloth is woven; besides the consciousness of having woven a weak yarn.

If we wish to grind corn or wheat, we arrange a pair of heavy stones, one upon the other, and letting the grain drop down to be passed between them, we get as the result flour or meal; or the tanner wishing his bark pulverized, puts it into a mill, or has it rolled over by a huge wheel, and in time his purpose is effected.

If we desired to reduce the filaments of cotton to a powder, the wheat or bark-mill would not appear as well devised for that purpose, considering the differences of the material to be acted on, as this devil, these spreaders and beaters, and the carders, as used in the factories. In the case of the tanners' mill, where the wheel turns over the bark, we see admirably illustrated the difference in the effect of the factory machinery and mine on the fibre. The more your wheel turns over and over on your bark the finer it gets; but if you run it only a few times over it, your bark will scarcely be broken, much less will it be pulverized. So, the comparatively few turns my machines have to make, do little injury to the fibre, while the number and violence of those of the factory ruin very much of it.

Having described the machines and processes of ginning and spinning, in their distinct locations, it will render that of my new combination of machines and mode of manufacturing improved yarns, more familiar and comparatively short.

HENRY'S MACHINERY.—I use a gin as a preparation carder, with a lap constructed to it, or a lap machine in connection.

Carders, railway and drawing-head, or if one or a few only are wanted, omit the railway.

Drawing-frames; speeders, or roving-frames; spinning-frames; reels, and yarn-press.

Arranging this machinery together, and banded and geared to a shaft which gives it motion, it operates singly or altogether when set in motion by the power, as is the case in the factory.

SPINNING-ROOM.—Where a spinning-room is to be built it is decidedly best and cheapest to make a single story of it. The Clipper Mills Factory, near Baltimore, some 650 feet long, is a single story, and the driving-shaft runs through the whole extent of the room; and some 5,000 spindles, looms, &c., are geared to it, and all operate beautifully. As you own your location, and as land is no object, the advantages of a single story are numerous and manifest. To save the climbing of stairs is an important and permanent advantage—carrying the seed cotton into a second story is avoided—and the manager sees over all at once. In a single story, in case of fire, much of the machinery could be removed—the danger of which would not be so great, and if it did burn, there would not be material enough in the room to injure the machinery materially.

It should be ceiled or plastered, with glass windows, and room allowed for

some looms, if you choose to weave your own stuffs, bagging, &c.; and, to do justice to your-yarns, they must be better baled than your cotton, which you can well afford, from the lessened quantity of baling demanded.

NEW PRINCIPLE IN THE ACTION OF SPINNING MACHINERY ON THE PLANTATION.—What I remark in relation to the modified action of the gin, and the beneficial results of its new operation on the cotton fibre, may, with equal justice, be asserted respecting the spinning machinery.

Improvements invented in spinning-machinery and the fixed principle of its movements, are, as rapidly and with as little human help, as possible, to rush through its work.

This being true, of course much is done by the machinery with that object more in view, than to make an even, clean and strong yarn. I introduce a new influence. Having our power, not having the cotton to buy, and not having the operatives to pay, we need not resort to that machinery whose purpose is more to rapidly execute its work, than to do it well. Our aim will be to get the best machinery, that which will make the best yarns, if a little more time is required than they employ.

As a grower of cotton, the planter is an agriculturist—as a ginner of cotton, he is a manufacturer, for he who converts any crude production into a merchantable or commercial article, manufactures it. By the adoption of my improvement he advances a step, and becomes a manufacturer of cotton yarns. As a manufacturer of the first, it is his interest to have his gins made more with a design of running rapidly, that, as soon as possible, he may get the crop in market, availing himself of dry roads and early navigation, and to be promptly into the crop work of another year; but it will now be his interest to have his gin so modified as only to yield of ginned cotton as much per day as he spins, for my machinery is designed to perform some definite amount of work in, say 150 working days, or the half year, or the 300 working days of a year. As, for example, a planter making 100 bales, (500 pound bales,) wishing to gin and spin his crop from the 1st September to the 1st March—50,000 lbs. in 150 days—will require to gin daily, only 334 lbs., and a man making 300 bales cotton, of 150,000 lbs., gin and spin his in the year of 300 days, will only require to gin and spin 500 lbs. a day.

Reducing the feed, speed and production of my gin, I require it to resume its legitimate function, a *preparation carder*. We make it clean the fibre as well as it can be made to do it, and to send this ginned cotton out in a sheet and make it form a lamina at the gin; or I take a spreader and beater, divested of its feed-apron, and arrange its feed-rollers to the mouth of the flue of the gin, and let them take the sheet on through it to a lamina.

This lamina formed at the gin, or the one formed at the end of the spreader and beater, I take to the place assigned for it at the carders.

Thus attached, it passes through the cards by the railway, in the form of a sliver to the drawing-head, thence to the drawing-frames, thence to the spinning-frames, thence to the reels, from which the hanks are taken; and the wrapping-paper and baling having been previously arranged to receive it, some 300 to 350 lbs. are pressed and turned out in a bale of yarns. My gin and spinning machinery is geared, as before remarked, to one shaft; and, as in the cotton factory, all may run, or any part of it may be stopped, as desired.

Planters making 100 bales or less, may use their mules; for as my gin turns off two-thirds less, I divert two-thirds of the power thus economized to my machinery; and as I exclude from use the picker, or devil, of the factories, and as my gin, spreader, and beater, and carders, may be driven with less speed, and hence with less power, than the present process, six mules (certainly not over eight) will be enough for the 100 bale planter to gin and spin his crop in six months. Those making 100 bales and above are adopting the steam-engine for their ginning and other plantation purposes; so, the water or steam-power they now use, of which they can so economically get, will both gin and spin their crops.

In every department of the process of spinning, an elastic and flexible fibre is important, and hence in dry hot weather to run factories rapidly, working old cotton, breaks the alivers and thread very much.

But taking the fibre, as I do, just from the seed, in its oily, elastic, and flexible state, is of incalculable advantage to its manufacture, as it admits of the drawing and eliminating with the utmost freedom, and parts with the impurities without rupturing or breaking the filaments.

POWER, LABOR, AND CAPITAL.—Now, this "power" is one of the prominent features in the economy of my invention. It is extraordinarily important. You are compelled to have it to gin your cotton. You cannot dispense with it; and let me give you good authority for its consequence:

McCulloch, the great English political economist, in all his valuable writings, with Baines and others, always insist that the great advantages the English possess, in "capital," "power," and "cheap labor," ensure their supremacy over all nations in the cotton manufacture. But I will quote where *he admits* my invention *overshadows them*. And I desire the whole quotation, and expressly the words emphasized by italics and capitals to be closely observed.

In his Geographical Dictionary, in the last paragraph, respecting "Manufactures," under the subject "British Empire," he says:

"And the fact of Hargraves and Arkright being Englishmen, gave us that early priority and superiority in the manufacture, which our favorable situation in other respects has since enabled us to maintain. It is seldom an easy matter for new rivals to come into successful competition with those who have already attained to considerable proficiency in any art or manufacture; *and they rarely succeed, unless they have some material advantage on their side.* * * * WERE ANY CHANGE OR REVOLUTION EFFECTED IN MACHINERY THAT SHOULD ADMIT OF COAL BEING ADVANTAGEOUSLY DISPENSED WITH, IT IS DIFFICULT TO SAY WHAT EFFECT IT MIGHT HAVE IN THE LONG RUN ON OUR MANUFACTURES. We believe, however, that our advantageous situation, the magnitude of our capital, the industry of our workmen, would, under any circumstances, ensure our continued prosperity as a manufacturing people. So long, however as coal continues to be as indispensable in industrial undertakings as at present—* * * there is not so much as the shadow of a ground for supposing that our manufacturing prosperity will be impaired." * * *

I have referred to the "power" we shall use as one of the great features of my invention. It is of far greater importance than, I am apprehensive, will be ascribed to it on the first impression. As it is the main spring to the practicability of all manufactures, I must be pardoned for directing such especial attention to the remarks of McCulloch. It must be observed, that what he says so much about is *the mere means of generating power*—it is respecting coal to which he devotes so much attention; but in my case, *I am not to refer to coal, water, wood, or mules for my power*. I deal with a substantiality—the power itself concrete; you have it already to gin your cotton; must have it, come as it may; and it is not material to my purpose how you get it.

In the aggregate scattered over all your plantations it is an enormous power. Well, I start with "PRE-EXISTING POWER," and by the adoption of my improvement you spin as well as gin your crops with it.

True, I do not deny but we could successfully create the power to spin up our crops as well as is done in England; and that our other advantages without this, would advance us far ahead of any other competition. You observe the stress he puts on coal: "*Were any change or revolution effected in machinery, that should admit of coal being advantageously dispensed with, it is difficult to say what effect it might have, in the long run, on our manufactures.*"

I may here say I have devised a REVOLUTION IN MACHINERY, that not only admits of coal being dispensed with, but it is equivalent to doing it *without any power*, as we have the power already, and only require it to spin, in addition to what it now does. Then as to capital, spinners must have that. They are not like weavers, who can make their own looms, and employ their long nights in hand weaving the yarns they buy from day to day.

Spinners must have capital to build their houses and to buy their locations at the point they can get the means to create their power—either the fuel or water; and in England these locations are costly, they must have capital to pay the wages of their operatives; but as important as any other item, they

must have capital to buy their cotton, and to keep themselves in stock, etc. All this requires IMMENSE CAPITAL.

Let us see now how we are off in that particular. Take a planter who makes 100 bales of cotton, and his investment, as we practically find it, is worth \$50,000; that is capital; and then, if our average crop is 3,000,000 bales of cotton, our investment is \$1,500,000,000—a *very round sum*, fifteen hundred millions of dollars, or three hundred millions sterling. It has been estimated at \$1,600,000,000 before the advance in property—ten times the amount invested in cotton spinning in England and America.

To illustrate the foregoing remarks, and to show the boasted capital we have to compete with England, I submit from "Baines," p. 401, the following statement of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain, written in 1835. The capital has since been added to, but this will afford an approximate estimate of it at present:

Total value of cotton goods manufactured annually, of every description.....	£34,000,000
• Raw material.....	7,000,000
Wages of Weavers, Spinners, etc.....	20,000,000
Profits, Coal, etc.....	7,000,000—34,000,000

The Capital employed may be estimated as follows:

In purchase of raw material.....	4,000,000
In payment of wages.....	10,000,000
Invested in spinning mills, power and hand looms, workshops, warehouses, stock on hand etc.....	20,000,000
	£34,000,000

This, it is observed, was the capital for weaving, finishing and spinning of every description of cotton goods.

Let us note this carefully. At that time they required £4,000,000 of capital to buy the cotton with—£10,000,000 to pay their wages, and they required £20,000,000 capital to build, buy locations and power.

Before I proceed to describe the advantage we have in labor, I must repeat that, as the planter has the cotton himself, no additional capital is wanted for the purpose of buying the cotton; having the location and power already, he requires no additional capital to command them; and I will now compare our labor to theirs.

The operatives we shall require in our spinning rooms are already fed, clothed, and owned by the planters, save the spinner; the others are from eight to twelve years old, with the exception of some old women, old men, or cripples—or women whose situation prevent their handling baskets of cotton or plowing. And what is most extraordinary is, their attitude as consumers now, will be beneficially altered to that of producers, and no wages to pay.

Then we have all of these great elements, power, labor, and capital, in a more unbounded degree than is possessed by the English, reposing in embryo, and merely requiring the application of my improvement that they may spring into active and powerfully operative existence.

What a spectacle! You own power, you own locations, you own cotton, you own operatives to make your yarns, saving by it, an aggregate of 300,000 bales of cotton a year from waste, make a better article, and to crown all, raise the value of your incomes from \$150,000,000 a year to \$350,000,000 a year.

This is not all. Let me call your attention to this waste for a moment. If your saving of waste will be ten per cent., or 300,000 bales per annum, worth \$15,000,000, converted into yarns, they are worth over \$30,000,000, or 20 per cent. of the average value of your cotton crops.

Who can run this race with us! or who win such a game! Who, for sport, or to win a wager, starts a hack against a thorough-bred! or who will bet against a hand holding all the honors and all the trumps!

* You will observe the raw material they only pay £7,000,000 for one-fifth the value of the goods after they have manufactured them, (£34,000,000.)

To feel our position more fully, we will now examine the question of

WASTE AND PROFITS.—In the "American Cotton Spinner," by the late Robert H. Bayard, of Philadelphia—well known as an expert, from whom I have before quoted—is a table, (page 228,) showing the waste each week, for 26 weeks, in a factory containing 8,212 spindles, and the result was this:

Weight of Yarns.....	161,752½
Weight of Lap Waste.....	7,981
Weight of Picker Waste.....	7,699
Weight of Sweepings.....	7,758

The waste of this factory is in the following ratio:

Laps.....	7,981
Picker.....	7,699
Sweepings.....	7,758
Bales Ropes.....	8,400

Total.....	26,838
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"Making, it appears (to use his own words) from this account, that the waste and wrappers amounted to 16.59 per cent. of the yarn produced, in addition to the sand that falls out in picking and carding, which would raise it to 17 per cent." This shows 100 pounds of cotton only make 83 pounds of yarns.

On the next page he exhibits a table of items

For Wages, Expenses, and Profits of a Cotton Factory for one month—thus:

Dr.

To Wages of Hands.....	\$2,032 81
38,207 lbs. Cotton, at 11 cents.....	4,202 77
Contingent Expenses.....	400 00
Clerk's Salary.....	60 00
Insurance and Taxes.....	150 00
Balance profits for one Month.....	2,065 81

Total.....	\$8,911 39
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Cr.

By 32,657 lbs. of No. 24 Yarns, at 27 cents.....	\$8,817 39
Flying Waste and Ropes.....	94 00

Total.....	\$8,911 39
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He makes these remarks, which, please observe, on page 230, in relation to those profits and the foregoing:

"The total cost of each pound of yarn in wages and general expenses, is 8.09 cents. The noted price of cotton is about the average. The amount charged for wages is correct, and an ample allowance is made for contingent expenses. With all these disadvantages, there is a profit on the yarn produced of 6.33 cts. per pound, including the \$94 worth of waste. Such a profit should pay in the dulllest times."

I introduce those exhibits from this standard work to show the waste I have referred to, and to show the expense a manufacturer is at to make a *pound of yarn*, (near 9 cents a pound,) and on that expense—in a time he calls dull—a profit of 6.33 a pound is made; cotton costing 11 cents, the yarns selling for 27 cents, which he seems to be anxious to persuade manufacturers in very dull times they ought to stumble along with. And you, Mr. Planter, think so, too.

You observe there is here shown 17 per cent. of waste, and as the cost is near 9 cents a pound for spinning, they must get that before they touch any profits; and this does not include the value of the rent of the factory, or interest on the investment.

RISK BY FIRE in the ginning and spinning room, compared with the existing processes considered:

This is an important question.

It will be at once seen that by my process it is so much diminished that it might be said to be scarcely one-tenth of the present risk.

In the first place, at the gin house you have seed cotton, lint cotton in the lint room, and perhaps baled cotton under an adjoining shelter.

We know that the cotton in the lint room is like tinder—a spark communicated to it, and all is gone; and grit getting into the journals of the gin excites the friction, and gin houses sometimes do burn up in consequence of it. But in my spinning room the seed cotton is put to the gin, and passes into and through the machinery; and the small quantity of cotton in it, at all points, would be insufficient to make a fire that could even destroy the machinery, if it should get on fire. And as I modify their working and speed, the danger of their igniting is diminished; there is not enough cotton anywhere to make a fire; and when it gets into the yarns, they, of course, will not be allowed, for want of room, to accumulate in the spinning room—but, following them to the store room, *it is a close building*, (not such a shed as cotton is put under,) and, as before stated, you can scarcely burn yarns if you set them on fire.

It is indisputable, therefore, that the risk of fire by my connection is much lessened from what it is at the gin house and the factory, in their respective processes, considered separately or together.

FREIGHTS.—Spinning condenses cotton into about half the space baled cotton occupies; and 300 to 350 pound packages of yarns are so small, one hand can easily manage them.

Steamboats bring down bales of cotton osnaburgs at fifty cents each, and cotton bales at one dollar. Three bales of osnaburgs occupy on a boat about the same storage room of one bale of cotton. Now, the steamboat gets a dollar and fifty cents for this room so occupied, which is a benefit to her in room of 50 per cent.—but the three bales of yarns weighing 1,050 pounds, at 22c. are worth \$231 00. You observe, getting the freight on \$231 00 for \$1 50, (the freight of four bales of cotton in value for \$1 50, instead of \$4 00,) is a saving by the value of the new article of 165 per cent., though in point of room, as before remarked, the steamboat makes 50 per cent. more than she does on cotton.

And the ship takes her cargo by the pound, say one halfpenny. If you ship cotton (500 lbs.) worth fifty dollars, and pay five dollars freight for it, and ship 500 lbs. yarns at a halfpenny, or five dollars, if the yarns are worth a hundred dollars, it is equivalent to your getting the freight on raw cotton at a farthing per pound, a saving of 100 per cent. on that item; and as the ship saves compressing, this she may take from the freights. Yarns being sold by numbers, many little charges are economized.

There is one charge cotton is subjected to, of which planters have no knowledge who have never shipped to England. When you propose to ship you calculate all the charges and drawbacks accruing on the cotton from that moment until it is sold on the other side, and in that we *allow always* five per cent. *for loss of weight*, which, as the sales show, always occurs, *at least*. I have known it to exceed, *but never to be less*: this takes place after it is re-sampled and weighed by the broker, and hence arises in England. How this occurs (seeing it goes by salt water, and to a country so humid that it is regarded a rarity to have a clear day,) I cannot answer, but I repeat it takes place, and I repeat, in reference to this loss, as well as every other charge, and as well as the waste which takes place in the factory, the cotton planter *pays or loses*—it matters not where or when he sells his cotton, as I remarked in the outset.

It is true there will be expenses on yarns, but the saving from damages and waste and other items will very much lessen them in proportion.

I do not suppose I could have a hundred bales of cotton in bales insured in the loft of the building I am writing in at less than five per cent. per annum, and I know if they were in yarns they would be glad to take the risk at one per cent. It is worse on the river, from the inflammable nature of cotton in bales. On yarns your insurance will be diminished in an immense ratio.

COST OF MACHINERY.—The cost of machinery to spin up the following quantities of cotton per day, I collate from various estimates made by leading and eminent machine manufacturers.

A forty-five bale planter, making 22,500 pounds of cotton, will require to gin and spin 75 pounds a day, in 300 days, to put it into yarns—and the machinery will cost about \$1,500. The increased value of his yarn will be, at present prices, about 2,800.

A hundred bale planter, of 50,000 pounds, will require to gin and spin in each of 300 days, 167 pounds per day, and his will cost him about \$2,500. From \$5,000 his will be raised to \$10,000.

A two hundred bale planter will require to gin and spin 333 pounds per day, and his machinery will cost him about \$4,500. From \$10,000 his will be raised to 20,000.

A three hundred bale planter will require to gin and spin 500 pounds per day, and his will cost him about 6,000, and his yarns will be worth \$30,000.

A six hundred bale planter, making 300,000 pounds, will require to gin and spin 1,000 pounds per day, and his machinery will cost about \$12,000, and his income will be \$66,000.

A twelve hundred bale planter, making 600,000 pounds will require to gin and spin 2,000 pounds per day, and his machinery will cost about \$24,000. His income will be about \$135,000.

A fifteen hundred bale planter, making 750,000 pounds, will require to gin and spin 2,500 pounds per day, and his machinery will cost about \$30,000. His income will be about 170,000.

These are approximate estimates for yarns numbering about an average of 5 to 10 and 15. As we progress in the art, we will buy more machinery and spin the finer yarns.

SPINNING SIX MONTHS, OR THE YEAR ROUND.—I have stated the crop can be spun up in six months, and in time to take the mules from the ginning and spinning rooms, as well as such operatives as have helped who may be required to go into the field, by the 1st of March. This can be done; but from what I can understand from planters, they do not object to the idea of ginning and spinning the year round. If you work the year round, you will of course require one-half the machinery; and it is to be observed that, by the 1st March, commencing to gin and spin 1st September, the planter will have his yarns in value, as much in market as his whole crop would command, if it were only ginned cotton.

Considering the prices the steam engine has been reduced to, and the many uses it could be applied to for plantation purposes, besides that of ginning and spinning, I am certain planters will adopt them after they have spun the first crop; and I must advise those to get them, who have not procured them already. The cost, compared to their advantage, is too insignificant to receive a second thought. In Florida they are using them to some extent, and extensively in Mississippi and Louisiana. The engine for a hundred bale planter would cost about \$600.

OPERATIVES REQUIRED TO GIN AND SPIN A CROP.—The number and quality of the operatives—as they are not hands—wanted for a few planters of different denominations, I will give, which will furnish an estimate to larger or less planters.

A planter of one hundred bales will want for the gin and lap machine such a hand as his ginner is.

To the carder, a boy of fourteen to sixteen, or an elderly negro or crippled man.

To the drawing frame, one girl ten to twelve years old.

To the speeder or roving frame, a girl ten to twelve years old.

To the spinning frames, three girls of from eight to twelve years old.

To the reels, three old women, or three whose condition prevents their working out, or old crippled men.

As the yarns are placed directly on the paper and baling, to be packed as soon as the necessary quantity is taken to the press, no packer is wanted.

A planter making three hundred bales will only want, in addition to the above, two little girls of eight to twelve to the spinning frames, and perhaps two to the reels of the sort named for that purpose. In proportion, the num-

ber and kind of operatives are slightly increased for larger planters, but chiefly in the smaller ones for the spinning frames and those for the reels.

It may be properly remarked here that a spinner informs me that, in one week they can be learned to do the work, and after they get some experience, rather fewer will be necessary than the number we started with.

In relation to the process of spinning, I will quote the language of Baines, page 243: "The operations are numerous, and *every one* of them is performed by machinery, without the help of human hands, except in transferring the material from one machine to another. It is by iron fingers, teeth, and wheels moving with inexhaustible energy and devouring speed, that the cotton is opened, cleaned, spread, carded, drawn, roved, spun, wound, warped, dressed, and woven. (These latter belong to the weaving.) The various machines are proportioned to one another, and the operations of each, chase one another, and all toil through the day, deriving their motion from the power fed by water or fuel." (Or horses.)

"Operatives, in the mean while, have merely to attend to this series of mechanism: to supply it with work, oil its joints, and to check its slight and infrequent irregularities, each one performing, or rather superintending as much work as could have been done by *two or three hundred men sixty years ago.*" And on page 480, he says: "On the authority of Mr. Mimerel, (the cotton spinner,) in France children of six and eight years old work fourteen and a half and fifteen hours a day; in Switzerland fourteen hours, and in the Rhenish provinces of Prussia, fifteen or sixteen hours."

And on page 459, he says, of the nature of the employment, "that a child engaged twelve hours a day in the factory, for *nine* hours he performs no actual labor, being unemployed three-fourths of the time." And a compliment is paid to spinners, on page 464, which I will add, in conclusion:

"Yet," Dr. Kay adds, "in all these respects it is grateful to add, that those amongst the operatives of the mills, who are employed in the *process of spinning*, and especially of fine spinning, are more attentive to their domestic arrangements—more regular in their habits, and more observant of their duties than those engaged in other branches of the manufacture."

I know no planter who has not more of the force described, on his premises, that are not employed from their age or condition in making the crops, than will be sufficient to spin it into yarns. If, for the first year or two, he put some there whom he wishes, from long service, to rest, it will be readily seen that he can, from the great increase of his income, afford to use some of his rapidly accumulating surplus in the purchase or hire of others.

We will now state the necessity for a

SUPERINTENDENT OR SPINNER.—To put your machinery in motion, to see it kept in order, and to spin the different sized yarns, an experienced and accomplished spinner will be indispensable. Such as fill this department in cotton factories, get about six hundred dollars a year, paying their own expenses. But as one superintendent can overlook a number of different spinning rooms on different plantations, to do this will doubtless entitle the spinner to a higher range of salary, from the aggregate of planters he serves.

In the early period of the manufacturing business in Massachusetts, Cabbott, of Springfield, I understand, rode a distance of fourteen miles between the factories he directed.

PRICE OF YARNS.—I have in round numbers told you that by spinning your cotton into yarns, you would double your income. Allow me to inform you how I arrive at this, and if you please do not be offended if you discover that in this, as well as in many other items, you will find you are better off than you supposed.

Yarns range at prices from about 22 cents to \$1 a pound in Europe, and I would class them thus:

Say a crop of 3,000,000 bales of cotton, at 450 pounds to the bale, weighs 1,350,000,000 pounds, which, at 12 cents to the pound, is equal to \$162,000,000. One half of this—675,000,000 pounds—I put into yarns at an average of twenty-two cents, which would amount to \$148,500,000; one fourth of the remainder,

337,500,000, at twenty-eight cents, \$94,000,000; one-fourth or balance, 337,500,000, at forty cents, 135,000,000—in all \$378,000,000.

To make this plain, let me say that yarns are made from No. 5 to No. 200; that the lower numbers are the sizes mostly used, and are made of the poorest cotton. I have allowed that one-half of our crop was consumed in the coarsest quality of goods, and hence I put them at the lowest price of yarns—twenty-two cents; one-fourth a small grade finer, at 26 cents; and one-fourth finer still, at forty cents.

To-day, that I might be certain and give you the latest quotations, I sent a note of inquiry to two eminent firms—one buyers and the other sellers of yarns, for their quotations, and to specify numbers. The buyers responded "twenty-two cents, manufacturers' prices, from Nos. 5 to 9." The sellers responded "twenty-one to twenty-two cents per pound for Nos. ranging from 5 to 12—principally 6's to 9's, with an increasing demand: that they could not get a half supply: that their prices from 1852 to 1856 had been from eighteen to nineteen cents—same numbers." During these years—from '52 to '56—the average price of cotton was about nine, as it is now about eleven and a half to eleven and three-fourths cents. Here you see for these lowest numbers (and the lower the number the lower the price,) the yarns commanded about double the average price of cotton; and it must be especially borne in mind that those yarns are made of the lowest class and cheapest cottons.

Below I give the quotations of cotton in our market, (3d February,) by an eminent brokerage firm:

Inferior.....	10	α 10½ c.
Ordinary.....	11	α 11½ c.
Middling.....	12½	α 12½ c.
Fair.....	13c.	—

You perceive that 3,000,000 bales of cotton at twelve cents, are worth..... \$162,000,000

That the crop spun into yarns—one-half of the coarsest, one-fourth a shade finer, and one-fourth a few shades finer, will amount to..... \$378,000,000

\$216,000,000

Here we have \$216,000,000, or nearly 150 per cent. more than the cotton sells for—and putting cotton at the extreme prices, and yarns below the actual rates. So a planter, whose crop of cotton amounts to \$5,000 would get for it, in yarns, \$12,500. Say \$7,500 for spinning it, and 5,000 for the ginned cotton, if spun into the average qualities. When we get under way we can spin the kinds they want in France and Italy, to mix with the heavy satins and more antique silks we prize so highly.

TERMS.—I contemplate, as my terms will show, to devote myself to all the details of my improvement, in all of its branches. I am willing to contract on this basis, with planters: To receive from them or their factors, on the first of January of each year, for the first five years,

One-fourth of the excess the yarns bring over the price of cotton. I, on my part, dispose of the privilege to them to spin a specific quantity per annum; and if the planter increases his planting interest, by purchase or otherwise, for his new interest a new contract for the addition to be made. The propriety of this is indicated by the nature of the improvement.

AGENCIES.—It is my intention to establish local agents in each of the important cotton counties in the cotton region, that they make conditional contracts for me with the planters of their respective counties. Every cotton planter will adopt the improvement so soon as he understands its important advantages, and the business of the agent will not be difficult. Applications from every county properly sustained by evidence of business habits and character, will be respectfully considered and acted upon. The agency will be valuable.

RETROSPECTIVE GLANCE AT ADVANTAGES.—A great and paramount advantage to the planter, by putting his cotton into yarns will be, as yarns are worth, as

has been shown, 150 per cent. more than cotton, a crop of \$5,000 if put into yarns of average numbers, he will get in the enhanced price the first season, more than his machinery costs him, (equivalent to its costing him nothing:) although it lasts twenty to thirty years, and is a fair representation of so much capital.

The next great advantage will be that this very large addition to our annual incomes must give an unexampled stimulus to our commerce, and place the cotton region in advance of mines or mints. The cotton crop worth \$150,000,000 per annum will be raised by this to from \$300,000,000 to \$400,000,000.

But there are other minor, yet important advantages. To the poor man, two shirts will be equal in durability to three of those of the present fabrics.

The burning up, and damage and waste of cotton, are, to the extent of its value, equal to the loss of so much of the wealth of the country, benefitting no one; but its preservation by improvement, acts in a threefold economical ratio, for, if a penny saved is a penny gained, and you take the saved penny and make two of it, your cash account is raised threefold.

By my process, the danger of, and risk from fire, is lessened at least nine-tenths. For as, at my spinning room, I take seed cotton which you can scarcely burn in bulk, and make it immediately into yarn; and this again you can scarcely burn—excluding from use in my series the very machines that cause the fires at the factories, and moderating the operation of those I use, it is obvious the risk is enormously reduced at the spinning room on the plantations and everywhere the yarn goes.

Using my improvement is equivalent to selling to the planter a plantation, negroes, stock, etc., at least equal to the one he cultivates, if not one and a half more extensive. But my part of it is without the care and anxiety attending his. Through twelve long months, in cold, and wet, and heat, a large number are dashing on to make, gather, and prepare for another crop—and here, by a few little, old, or crippled operatives, under cover, I certainly spin all the seed cotton, worth 100 to 150 per cent. more than the raw cotton; and this will *be really a diversion*. My improvement is of more value than if it doubled the crop; for, although the consumption is increasing rapidly, which will advantageously dispose of the increase arising from the saving of waste, and the greater durability of the fabrics; yet so rapid an increase of the crop as to double it, would not, I apprehend, be desirable.

It is true, Lord Palmerston has recently enunciated in his public speeches, that the day could be calculated on, when the United States, from an increasing population and over consumption, could spare none of her crop for England or Europe. And an able writer in the New York Herald has estimated that, in ten years, 6,000,000 of bales would be wanted for our own and European consumption.

The enormous consumption of the past year proves that we do not now produce a supply adequate to the demand.

The receipts at the ports were 3,526,000 bales. Some 200,000 to 250,000 bales, it is supposed, of this belonged to the crop of the year before, and were detained for want of navigation. But not only all this, but some 200,000 bales of the stock on hand at the commencement of the year have been consumed; and this has occurred in the face of multiplied commercial derangements flowing from a great war, and unexampled prices for the elements of subsistence.

That crop, too, every planter knows, was remarkable as being unusually good.

Thus we have point blank evidence in our own possession on this important point. That we cannot, with our present force, supply the naturally increasing demand. But, independent of that established and increasing demand, the whole world is inoculated now with the advantages and comforts of the fabrics of cotton. In the extreme Northern, Southern, and Equatorial regions—the freezing and the torrid climes—it is eagerly inquired for, and they pay for them in articles of immensely multiplied value when exhibited and sold in the bazaars of Europe. Without presuming to throw even a vagrant thought upon any adventure of ours that was not bound to England or New York, I must call attention to this point in connection with its production. Labor is in such

general demand all over the old world as well as the new, that it is a question if negroes are being diverted rather from cotton, than pressing towards its culture; and if a cotton planter chooses to see what prices negroes hire for now, (not to make cotton,) and counts up the net proceeds of these on his plantation, he turns his nose and his eyes from the account, as if something "positively shocking" had been thrust at him. Well, that we may feel, and let it be known that we feel secure against increased consumption, I say that no capitalist who seeks a paying investment could buy negroes at present prices, *to make cotton*, for any probable price it may attain and settle at.

Many planters are more successful than others; but we know that, to many, so far as an interest-paying investment is concerned, that portion of their business is a mere farce, with the laughing part left out.

Is not the use of my improvement the only hope by which the production may in time be increased? This is a grave inquiry. The soothing hope of its affirmative solution I offer to England, for the item we shall retain from her gigantic manufacturing enterprises and resources, which, though immaterial to her, I think are of such consequence to us.

Were your inducements less to manufacture your yarn, considering its superiority, the benefit it would be conferring upon the human family alone, would make it incumbent on you to do so, seeing you must gin it; and to spin it, is really its natural sequence. This addresses itself to those whose fortunes place them beyond the necessity of increasing their incomes.

It is a manufacture in the province of the planter. It is all his own; under his own eye and direction, and exactly suits him. His aversion to stock companies is not compromised, and it contemplates the enjoyment of that independence and security all are in pursuit of.

It is gratifying to know, that to manufacture your cotton into yarns, you neither invade nor destroy struggling competitors. No humble rival can curse its advent. The only interest touched with us, is that of compressing; but besides presses belonging to wealthy capitalists, who could divert them to other purposes; under any circumstances it will occur to them that, as the commerce of cities must be doubled by the operations of the improvement that supersedes their use, the sites of those presses will be in demand for a more popular and lucrative purpose.

Are these advantages to be secured without some effort?

Can one expect to get a plantation, negroes, and stock without working for them! Very few cotton planters make \$50,000 without working a long time for it; and if invested in cotton planting, and \$5,000 a year is realized from it, (gross,) it is about the average. From this, plantation and house expenses, taxes, etc., are deducted. Further—

Let a planter move into the wilderness with his force of twenty-five to thirty hands, if you please, and it will be some years before he has land enough open and fenced to make 100 bales of cotton on; and, in the interval, he suffers a good deal of privation.

Then, thus regarding it, you cannot expect to enter into the comforts and enjoyments of my plantation, negroes, stock, etc., without doing something yourselves, can you? Oh, no! I know you can not! But what are you to do? **THIS YOU HAVE TO DO:** Take the matter up and study it, each for himself; and, between you and me, you will discover this will be your greatest privation, and it will remove your difficulty.

Separate the invention itself from its dazzling effects, and you will soon be able to make a discreet decision. I know the glare of the immense benefits we shall immediately command from it, attacks the senses so suddenly, that all those even who have never been imposed on in their lives, fear it must be a dream! That it is too good to be a reality! But, gentlemen, I tell you I am cool in this matter, and I do not wish to intoxicate you with enthusiasm, but I positively assert I have not disclosed all of the advantages which you must have from it.

What are my terms? They show my confidence in its success, you observe, they are very moderate. Before I am ready to enter into contracts, I have closed several, where the parties gratuitously engage to give me half of the excess of what the yarns will bring over and above the price of cotton. And let

me not forget to call attention here to this peculiar feature in the price of yarns and the price of cotton goods per pound, and it is this: the pound of manufactured osnaburgs, for example, appears to be only about double the price of cotton; and, seemingly, this contradicts my advertisement, that, by my improvement your incomes will be doubled. But let me whisper this secret into your ear—the cost of weaving these goods is not half a cent a yard; and with the sizing introduced into their weight, as a cloth, the apparently small difference between them in price pays very well for weaving. And I may here remark, in connection, that in your spinning the cotton into yarn, you take the cream of its manufacture off. And it must be borne in mind that osnaburgs are made of the cheapest class of cotton and from the lowest number of yarns.

Having thus placed before you an exposition of the merits of my improvement in the manufacture of cotton yarns, and other outlines of the mode of accomplishing it, I shall proceed to organize my system for dispensing of "Privileges" to use it. My agents will grant certificates of contract for privileges, when proper arrangements are made with them; and upon their receipt here, the sub patent to use it, will be issued.

PERSONAL.—It will doubtless occur to reflecting planters, that, from my conception of this invention, I must have been fully aware of its importance; and it will, therefore, suggest itself to them, that, having been fully impressed with it, to demonstrate its practicability, must have cost me incessant mental and physical labor. Possessed of the mental conception, to devise the mode of effecting the valuable result has entirely absorbed me, to the utter exclusion and sacrifice of important interests I had pending.

These remarks, to those who know my natural disposition and temperament, are due, as an apology for myself and perhaps to them.

Whatever may be the crude impressions of many, as to the results of the improvement I have endeavored to illustrate in the foregoing, I am positive it inaugurates for the South the most stupendous revolution ever known in history. Inventions which have gradually caused important ameliorations and benefits to the commonwealth, have been hailed with due satisfaction; but here is one that will develop itself with an energy and celerity never before realized.

Revolution did I say! This word recalls to the minds of the sensitive, reminiscences of sadness of even those most successful! In the dawn of revolutions, there have always been those whose constitutional formation and instincts impelled their craven spirits to attempt arguments to crush the patriot spirit, and, if possible, to strangle the embryo giant in its throes for a propitious birth. Such there were in 1776. They saw in the gloomy vista before them the pouring out of countless treasure; that it must be drenched in the blood of the wounded and slain; and that it must be bathed in the tears of the widow and the orphan. Some apology, with this picture affrighting their cowardly fancies, will be awarded them, though they have been unable to efface the deeply branded stigma that has marked them; but what would be the fate due the wretch who would raise his puny voice against this!

Here is a revolution without a terror! Viewed in all its aspects, all are concerned in its early and happy achievement. No widows or orphans tears command our sympathy; no battle-fields drenched in blood excite our nerves; but it is a civic revolution, in which every step is garlanded with gold; every step is lighted with clusters of glittering diamonds; and every step is redolent with the perfumes of never-dying laurels.

GEO. G. HENRY.

DRED SCOTT IN THE SUPREME COURT.

Whether the Supreme Court is the proper tribunal to settle grave political questions in which the rights of the States are involved, has ever been in controversy among the statesmen of the Republic, and it would be hardly proper to say, that it is yet determined, notwithstanding we have the great name and influence of the present Chief Magistrate of the United States in favor of the power of the Court in the premises. There are indications already, that the North, hitherto asserting the power in its broadest sense, is about to change its position, and lead off by Mr. Justice McLean, a dissenting member of the Court, consolidate all of its isms, and organize upon the basis of this another party, which shall struggle again for the control, and as must be the result if successful, the *overthrow of the Republic*.

Our prayers, however, are for a different state of things, and may the results of the deliberations, *almost unanimous*, of the gravest, the most learned, and most august tribunal in America and perhaps in the world, prove to be oil thrown upon the turbulent waters of party and fanatical strife, and may the councils of peace and brotherly accord once more be established in the country. Alas that the *wish* should be only ours. The *expectation* is but small indeed.

The decision of the majority of the Court to wit: six Judges (Taney, Wayne, Daniell, Grier, Campbell) out of ten, as read by Chief Justice Taney, and which we append, establishes the following points. (Judge Nelson, in a separate opinion, without touching the question of the Missouri Compromise, held that a slave carried into a free State remained a slave, whenever returning to the place in which his owner resided. Judge Catron, also in a separate opinion, denied the constitutionality of the Missouri Compromise, or the power of Congress to prohibit slavery in the Northwest Territory.)

1. Negroes, whether slaves or free—that is, men of the African race—are not citizens of the United States by the Constitution.

2. The ordinance of 1787 had no independent constitutional force or legal effect subsequently to the adoption of the Constitution, and could not operate of itself to confer freedom or citizenship within the Northwest Territory on negroes not citizens by the Constitution.

3. The provision of the act of 1820, commonly called the Missouri Compromise, in so far as it undertook to exclude negro slavery from and communicate freedom and citizenship to negroes in the northern part of the Louisiana cession, was

a legislative act exceeding the powers of Congress, and void and of no legal effect to that end.

4. The expression "territory and other property" of the Union in the Constitution applies in *terms* only to such territory as the Union possessed at the time of the adoption of the Constitution.

5. The rights of citizens of the United States emigrating into any Federal territory, and the power of the Federal Government there, depend on the general provisions of the Constitution, which define in this, as in all other respects, the powers of Congress.

6. As Congress does not possess power itself to make enactments relative to the persons or property of citizens of the United States in Federal territory other than such as the Constitution confers, so it cannot constitutionally delegate any such powers to a Territorial Government organized by it under the Constitution.

7. The legal condition of a slave in the State of Missouri is not affected by the temporary sojourn of such slave in any other State, but on his return his condition still depends on the laws of Missouri.

OPINIONS OF THE COURT.

There were two leading questions: first, had the Circuit Court of the United States for the district of Missouri jurisdiction in the case, and if it had jurisdiction, was its decision erroneous or not?

The defendant denied, by plea in abatement, the jurisdiction of the Circuit Court of the United States, on the ground that the plaintiff "is a negro of African descent, his ancestors were of pure African blood, and were brought into this country and sold as slaves," and therefore the plaintiff "is not a citizen of the State of Missouri." To this plea the plaintiff demurred, and the court sustained the demurrer. Thereupon the defendant pleaded over, and justified the trespass, on the ground that the plaintiff and his family were his negro slaves; and a statement of the facts, agreed to by both parties, was read in evidence.

The Chief Justice having stated the facts in the case, proceeded to say that the question first to be decided was, whether the plaintiff was entitled to sue in a court of the United States. This was a peculiar question, and for the first time brought before the court under such circumstances; but it had been brought here, and it was the duty of the court to meet and to decide it. The question was simply this: Can a negro whose ancestors were imported and sold as slaves become a member of the political community formed and brought into existence by the Constitution of the United States, and, as such, become entitled to all the rights and immunities of a citizen, one of which rights is suing in the courts of the United States in cases therein specified?

In discussing this question, we must not confound the rights of a citizen which a State may confer within its own limits, with the rights of a citizen within the limits of the United States. No one can be a citizen of the United States unless under the provisions of the Constitution; but it does not follow that a man, being a citizen of one State, must be recognised as such by every State in the Union. He may be a citizen in one State and not recognised as such in another. Previous to the adoption of the Constitution, every State might confer the character of a citizen, and endow a man with all the rights pertaining to it. This was confined to the boundaries of a State, and gave him no rights beyond its

limits. Nor have the several States surrendered this power by the adoption of the Constitution.

Every State may confer the right upon an alien, or on any other class or description of persons, who would, to all intents and purposes, be a citizen of the State, but not a citizen in the sense used in the Constitution of the United States. He would not thereby become a citizen of the United States, and, therefore, could not sue in any court in the United or other States. His rights would be confined strictly to his own State. The Constitution gives Congress the power to establish "a uniform rule of naturalization;" consequently, no State, by naturalizing an alien, could confer upon him the rights and immunities of all the States under the General Government. It is very clear, therefore, that no State can, by any act, introduce a new member into the political Union created by the Constitution.

The question then arises, whether the provision of the Constitution of the United States in relation to personal rights to which a citizen of a State is entitled, embraced negroes of the African race at that time in the country, or afterwards imported, or made free from any State; and whether it is in the power of any State to make such a one a citizen of a State, and endow him with full citizenship in any other State without their consent? Does the Constitution of the United States act upon him, and clothe him with all the rights of a citizen? The court think the affirmative cannot be maintained; and if not, the plaintiff could not be a citizen of Missouri within the meaning of the Constitution, nor a citizen of the United States, and, consequently, not entitled to sue in its courts.

It is true, that every person, and every class and description of persons at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, regarded as citizens of the several States, became citizens of this new political body, and none other. It was formed for themselves and their posterity, and for nobody else; and all the rights and immunities were intended to embrace only those of State communities, or those who became members according to the principles on which the Constitution was adopted. It was a Union of those who were members of the political communities, whose power, for certain specified purposes, extended over the whole territories of the United States, and gave each citizen rights outside his State which he did not before possess, and placed all rights of persons and property on an equality.

It becomes necessary, therefore, to determine who were citizens of the several States when the Constitution was adopted. In order to do this, we must recur to the colonies when they separated from Great Britain, formed new communities, and took their place among the family of nations. They who were recognised as citizens of the States declared their independence of Great Britain, and defended it by force of arms. Another class of persons, who had been imported as slaves, or their descendants, were not recognised or intended to be included in that memorable instrument—the Declaration of Independence.

It is difficult at this day to realize the state of public opinion respecting that unfortunate class with the civilized and enlightened portion of the world at the time of the Declaration of Independence and the adoption of the Constitution; but history shows they have, for more than a century, been regarded as beings of an inferior order, and unfit associates for the white race, either socially or politically; and had no rights which white men were bound to respect; and the black man might be reduced to slavery, bought and sold, and treated as an ordinary article of merchandize. This opinion, at that time, was fixed and universal with the civilized portion of the white race. It was regarded as an axiom in morals, which no one thought of disputing, and every one habitually acted upon it, without doubting for a moment the correctness of the opinion. And in no nation was this opinion more fixed and generally acted upon than in England, the subjects of which government not only seized them on the coast of Africa, but took them, as ordinary merchandize, to where they could make a profit on them. The opinion thus entertained was universally impressed on the colonists this side of the Atlantic; accordingly, negroes of the African race were regarded by them as property, and held, and bought, and sold, as such, in every one of the thirteen colonies which united in the Declaration of Independence, and afterwards formed the Constitution. The doctrine of which we

have spoken was strikingly enforced by the Declaration of Independence. It begins thus: "When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bonds which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation;" and then proceeds: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed," &c. The words before quoted would seem to embrace the whole human family; and if used in a similar instrument at this day, would be so understood. But it is too clear for dispute that the enslaved African race were not intended to be included; for in that case the distinguished men who framed the Declaration of Independence would be flagrantly against the principles which they asserted. They who framed the Declaration of Independence were men of too much honor, education, and intelligence to say what they did not believe; and they knew that in no part of the civilized world were the negro race, by common consent, admitted to the rights of freemen. They spoke and acted according to the practices, doctrines, and usages of the day. That unfortunate race was supposed to be separate from the whites, and was never thought or spoken of except as property. These opinions underwent no change when the Constitution was adopted. The preamble sets forth for what purpose, and for whose benefit, it was formed. It was formed by the people—such as had been members of the original States—and the great object was to "secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." It speaks in general terms of citizens and people of the United States when providing for the powers granted, without defining what description of persons should be included, or who should be regarded as citizens. But two clauses of the Constitution point to the negro race as separate, and not regarded as citizens for whom the Constitution was adopted. One clause reserves the right to import slaves until 1808, and in the second the States pledge themselves, one to another, to preserve the rights of the master, and to deliver up slaves escaping to their respective territories. By the first clause the right to purchase and hold this property is directly sanctioned and authorized by the persons who framed the Constitution for twenty years; and the States pledged themselves to uphold the right of the master as long as the government then formed should endure. And this shows conclusively that another description of persons were embraced in the other provisions of the Constitution. These two clauses were not intended to confer upon them or their posterity the blessings of liberty so carefully conferred upon the whites. None of this class ever emigrated to the United States voluntarily. They were all articles of merchandize. The number emancipated was few as compared with those who were held in slavery, and not sufficiently numerous to attract public attention as a separate class, and were regarded as a part of the slave population, rather than free.

It cannot be supposed that the States conferred citizenship upon them; for all those States at that time established police regulations for the security of themselves and families, as well as of property. In some minor cases there were different modes of trial, and it could not be supposed that those States would have formed or consented to a government which abolished this right and took from them the safeguard essential to their own protection. They have not the right to bear arms, and appear at public meetings to discuss political questions, or urge measures of reform which they might deem advisable. They cannot vote at elections, nor serve as jurors, nor appear as witnesses, where whites are concerned. These rights are secured in every State to white men. It is impossible to believe that the men of the slaveholding States, who took so large a share in the formation of the Constitution, could be so regardless of themselves and the safety of those who trusted and confided in them.

Every law of naturalization confines citizenship to white persons. This is a marked separation from the blacks. Under the confederation every State had

a right to decide for itself, and the term "free inhabitant," the generality of form, certainly excluded the African race. Laws were framed for the latter especially. Under the Constitution the word "citizen" is substituted for "free inhabitant." After further elaboration on this point, the Chief Justice said, from the best consideration, we have come to the conclusion that the African race who came to this country, whether free or slave, were not intended to be included in the Constitution for the enjoyment of any personal rights or benefits; and the two provisions which point to them treat them as property, and make it the duty of the government to protect them as such. Hence, the court is of opinion, from the facts stated in the plea in abatement, that Dred Scott is not a citizen of Missouri, and is not, therefore, entitled to sue in the United States courts.

The following facts appear on the record:

"In 1834 the plaintiff was a negro slave belonging to Dr. Emerson, who was a surgeon in the army of the United States. In that year (1834) said Dr. Emerson took the plaintiff from the State of Missouri to the military post at Rock Island, in the State of Illinois, and held him there as a slave until the month of April, 1836. At the time last mentioned, said Dr. Emerson removed the plaintiff from said military post at Rock Island to the military post at Fort Snelling, situated on the west bank of the Mississippi river, in the territory known as Upper Louisiana, acquired by the United States from France, and situated north of the latitude of 36 degrees 30 minutes north, and north of the State of Missouri. Said Dr. Emerson held the plaintiff in slavery at said Fort Snelling until 1838.

"In the year 1835, Harriet (who is named in the second count of the plaintiff's declaration) was the slave of Major Taliaferro, who belonged to the army of the United States. In that year (1835) said Major Taliaferro took said Harriet to said Fort Snelling, a military post situated as hereinbefore stated, and kept her there as a slave until the year 1836, and then sold and delivered her as a slave at Fort Snelling unto said Dr. Emerson, hereinbefore named; and said Dr. Emerson held said Harriet in slavery at said Fort Snelling until the year 1838.

"In the year 1836, the plaintiff and said Harriet, at said Fort Snelling, with the consent of said Dr. Emerson, who then claimed to be their master and owner, intermarried and took each other for husband and wife. Eliza and Lizzie, named in the third count of the plaintiff's declaration, are the fruits of that marriage. Eliza is about fourteen years old, and was born on board the steamboat Gipseys, north of the north line of the State of Missouri, and upon the Mississippi river; Lizzie is about seven years old, and was born in the State of Missouri, at the military post called Jefferson Barracks."

"In the year 1838, said Dr. Emerson removed the plaintiff and said Harriet, and their said daughter Eliza, from said Fort Snelling to the State of Missouri, where they have ever since resided.

"Before the commencement of this suit, said Dr. Emerson sold and conveyed the plaintiffs, said Harriet, Eliza, and Lizzie, to the defendant as slaves, and the defendant claimed to hold each of them as slaves.

"At the times mentioned in the plaintiff's declaration, the defendant, claiming to be owner as aforesaid, laid his hands upon said plaintiffs, Harriet, Eliza, and Lizzie, and imprisoned them; doing in this respect, however, no more than what he might lawfully do if they were of right his slaves at such times."

The Chief Justice proceeded to examine the statement, assuming that this part of the controversy presented two questions:

Firstly. Was he (Scott) and all his family free in Missouri; and,

Secondly. If not, were they free by reason of their removal to Rock Island, Illinois?

The act of Congress on which the plaintiff relies contains the clause, that slavery and involuntary servitude, except for crime, shall be forever prohibited in that part of the territory acquired by treaty from Louisiana, and not included within the limits of the State of Louisiana. The difficulty which meets us at the threshold is, whether Congress is authorized to pass such a law under

the powers granted to it by the Constitution! The plaintiff dwells much on the clause which gives Congress power "to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property of the United States!" But this provision has no bearing on the present controversy. The power there given is confined to the territory which then belonged to the United States, and can have no influence on territory which was acquired from foreign governments.

The Justice then referred to the cessions of land by Virginia and other States, saying the only object was to put an end to the existing controversies, and to enable Congress to dispose of the lands for the common benefit. Undoubtedly the power of sovereignty and eminent domain was ceded in the act. This was proper to make it essential. There was then no government in existence with enumerated powers. What was called the States were thirteen independent colonies which entered into confederation for mutual protection. It was little more than a Congress of ambassadors, in which all had a common concern. It was this Congress which accepted the cession from Virginia. They had no right to do so under the articles of the Confederation, but they had a right as independent powers to accept the land for the common benefit; and it is equally clear, having no superior to control them, they had a right to exercise absolute dominion, subject only to the restrictions which Virginia imposed. The ordinance of 1787 was adopted, by which the territory should be governed, and among other provisions was one that slavery or involuntary servitude should be prohibited except for crime.

This was the state of things when the Constitution was formed. The territory ceded by Virginia belonged to the several confederate States as common property. The States were about to dissolve the confederation, and surrender a portion of their power for the formation of a new government, and the language used limited and specified the objects to be accomplished. It was obvious that some provision was now necessary to give the new government the power to carry into effect every object for which the territory was ceded. It was necessary that the lands should be sold to pay the war debt, and that power should be given to protect the citizens who might emigrate, with their rights of property. Arms, military stores, (as well as ships of war,) were the "common property of the States existing in their independent character, and they had a right to take their property to the territory, without the authority of the States." The object was to place these things under the guardianship of a new government, which gives Congress the power "to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property of the United States." It applied only to property held in common at the time, and not with reference to any property which the sovereignty might subsequently acquire. It applied to the territory then in existence and known as the territory of the United States then in the mind of the framers of the Constitution. It refers to the sale or raising of money. This is different from the power to legislate over the territories. With the words "to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory" are coupled the words "*and other property of the United States.*" And the concluding words render this construction irresistible: "And nothing in the Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular State."

It is obvious that the Congress, under the new government, regarded the above clause as necessary to carry into effect the principles and provisions of the ordinance of 1787, which they regarded as an act of the States in the exercise of their political power at the time; and these representatives of the same States under the new government did not think proper to depart from any essential principle, and did not attempt to undo anything that was done.

As to territory acquired without the limits of the United States, it remains territory until admitted into the Union. No power is given in the Constitution to acquire territory to be held and governed in that character; and, consequently, there cannot be found in the Constitution any definition of power which Congress may lawfully exercise before it becomes a State. The power to acquire territory until it is in a condition to become a State on an equal footing with the other States must necessarily rest on sound discretion, and it becomes the

duty of the government to administer the laws of the United States for the protection of personal rights and property therein.

Whatever territory is acquired is for the common benefit of the people of the United States, which is but a trustee. At the time that territory was obtained from France it contained no population to be admitted as a State, and it therefore became necessary to hold possession of it until settled and inhabited by a civilized community, capable of self-government and for admission into the Union. But, as we before said, it was acquired by the Federal Government as the representative and trustee of the people of the United States, and must be held for their common and equal benefit; for it was the acquisition of the people of the United States, acting through their agents, and government held it for the common benefit until it should become associated as a member of the Union.

Until that time arrived it was undoubtedly necessary that some government be established to protect the inhabitants in their person and property. The power to acquire carries with it the power to preserve. The form of government necessarily rests on the discretion of Congress. It is their duty to establish the best suited for the United States, and that must depend on the number of its inhabitants, and the character and situation of the territory. What government is the best must depend on the condition of the territory at the time, to be continued until it shall become a State. But there can never be a mere discretionary power over persons and property. These are plainly defined by the Constitution.

The Constitution provides that "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances," &c. Thus the rights of property are united with the personal rights, and this extends to the Territories as well as to the States. Congress cannot authorize the Territories to do what it cannot do itself; it cannot confer on the Territories power to violate the provisions of the Constitution.

It seems, however, that there is supposed to be a difference between slaves and other property. The people, in the formation of the Constitution, delegated to the General Government certain enumerated powers and forbade the exercise of others. It has no powers over persons and property of citizens except those enumerated in the Constitution. If the Constitution recognises the right of master and slave, and makes no difference between slaves and other property, no tribunal acting under the authority of the United States can draw such a distinction and deny the provisions and guarantees secured against the encroachment of the Government.

As we have already said, the right of property in a slave is expressly conferred in the Constitution, and guaranteed to every State. This is in language too plain to be misunderstood; and no words can be found in the Constitution giving Congress greater power over slaves than over any other description of property.

It is, therefore, the opinion of this Court that the act of Congress which prohibits citizens from holding property of this character north of a certain line is not warranted by the Constitution, and is therefore void; and neither Dred Scott nor any one of his family was made free by their residence in Illinois. The plaintiff was not a citizen of Missouri, but was still a slave, and therefore had no right to sue in a Court of the United States.

The Court having thus examined the case as it stands under the Constitution, proceeded to other points, saying as Scott was a slave when he was brought back to Missouri from Illinois, he was under the law of the former and not of the latter. It has been settled by the highest tribunals that an individual does not acquire his freedom under such circumstances. As it appears to the Court that the plaintiff is not a citizen of Missouri, nor a citizen of the United States, who could sue in the United States Court, this Court can give no judgment, and hence the suit must be dismissed for want of jurisdiction.

STEAMSHIPS AT THE SOUTH.

NEW ORLEANS—ITS COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION—WHY SHE SHOULD BE SELECTED AS A POINT OF DEPARTURE FOR A LINE OF OCEAN MAIL STEAMERS TO EUROPE.

TO SOUTHERN PLANTERS AND SOUTHERN MERCHANTS: I sent to the last Congress a memorial, asking Government to contract with me to transport the United States mails between New Orleans and Bordeaux in steamships of the first class; the memorial was presented on the 2d February, to the House of Representatives, and referred to the Committee on the Post Office and Post Roads; the memorial, a short one, the same as published in De Bow's Review for March, set forth briefly some of the claims for a line of European mail steamers; these claims the Committee acknowledged, and they made a favorable report on my proposal, and passed a bill to present to the House; the pressure of business prevented the report from being made to the House; but I believe, if the matter had come before them, and been fully discussed, the New Orleans and Bordeaux mail steamship line would have been established, and the month of May would have witnessed the departure of the first steamship of the line from the Crescent city for Bordeaux amidst the approving plaudits of tens of thousands of her citizens. My attention was first called about two years ago to this route by Mr. L. K. Bowen, then United States Consul at Bordeaux, as a route embracing in an eminent degree all the requisites for a successful ocean mail steamship line. My connection with various lines of ocean steamships for the last seven years has convinced me, that in the present infancy of ocean steam navigation, no line of steamships can be sustained by the receipts from freight and passengers, and the policy of our Government (if it has any policy on this subject) is so fickle and uncertain, that I had almost abandoned the hope of ever seeing another line of ocean steamships established in the United States; but the success that has attended the wise policy of the British government, in making her ninety-one lines of ocean mail steamships, cannot fail to produce a salutary effect in our legislators and statesmen; and I look forward with no little confidence to the next Congress, with well grounded hopes that its legislation will be rendered memorable by extending a generous and liberal support to all and every ocean mail steamship line which the wants of commerce may require.

I now submit to you the statistics of the commerce and navigation of New Orleans, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1856, taken from the report of the United States Treasury; and upon those reports, I claim for New Orleans the first position as an exporting city of domestic produce, surpassing even

the great empire city of the North, by near ten millions of dollars. See table below.

I propose to show from the figures of the Secretary of the Treasury for 1856—

1st. The products of the Southern States comprise more than two-thirds of all the exports of the United States. See table on next page.

2d. New Orleans exports more domestic produce than any other city.

3d. New Orleans, in the aggregate of her exports and imports, stands next to New York.

I propose further to show, in justification of my selection of New Orleans as a point of departure for a line of steamships to France, that of the exports from the United States to France, more than one-half is cotton; that the trade of New Orleans with France is only exceeded by that of New York; that the trade of New Orleans with Spain is nearly triple that of any other city of the United States with Spain; and that her trade with Cuba is only exceeded by that of New York with Cuba.

Commerce and navigation of New Orleans, as compared with other cities of the United States.

Cities.	Exports.	Imports.	Agg'e Exports and Imports.
New Orleans.....	\$80,576,652	\$16,682,392	\$97,259,044
New York.....	98,763,197	195,645,515	294,408,712
Boston & Charlestown	24,673,675	41,661,088	66,334,663
Mobile.....	23,726,215	793,514	24,519,729
Charleston.....	17,328,503	1,905,234	19,233,737
Baltimore.....	10,856,637	9,119,907	19,976,544
Savannah.....	8,015,736	574,240	8,579,976
Philadelphia.....	6,955,324	16,588,686	23,541,009

From these figures it appears that New Orleans ranks second in exports, and third in imports; and that the aggregate of her exports and imports place her second on the list of commercial cities in the Union. But, to arrive at the true relative commercial position of New Orleans, the value of the exports of coin and bullion, cotton and rice, which are included in the exports from New York, should be deducted, as follows:

For the Coin and Bullion.....	\$24,765,013
“ Cotton	12,608,386
“ Rice.....	917,934

\$38,287,333

Which would leave the exports of New York \$60,475,864; whereas the exports from New Orleans, of cotton and tobacco, are \$70,851,307; thus proving that New Orleans exports domestic produce to the value of ten millions of dollars more

than New York. But give to New York all her exports except the coin and bullion, and then her total exports will amount to \$73,998,184, against those of New Orleans, \$80,536,652.

From these statistics it is an indisputable fact, that New Orleans stands first on the list of the cities of the Union as an exporting city of domestic produce; and, as a necessary consequence, her commerce is more valuable to the Union than that of any other city, and it ought to be encouraged by the General Government in every possible manner, by the establishment of ocean mail steam lines to Europe, and such other facilities for commerce as are bestowed upon northern cities.

Statement of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States for the year ending June 30, 1856, page 54, Treasury Report.

Total exports not including gold and silver coin and bullion, \$266,438,051.

Exports of products exclusively from Southern States :

Tar and pitch	\$235,487	Spirits from molasses..	\$1,329,151
Rosin and turpentine...	1,222,666	Molasses	154,630
Cotton.....	128,382,351	Spirits of turpentine..	839,048
Tobacco.....	12,221,843		
Brown sugar.....	202,145		
Rice.....	2,390,233		\$147,178,954

Here we have of exclusively Southern products, \$147,178,954

If to this we add one-third of the breadstuffs... 25,000,000

And one-third of the products of the forest.... 3,333,000

We will have a total of Southern products exported..... \$175,511,954

Which would leave for the exports of Northern products..... 90,926,097

But this is more than the Northern States are entitled to, for in it is included the raw material from the South consumed in the Northern manufactories, which is valued at \$7,000,000.

So that the Southern States furnish for exportation..... \$182,511,954

Against the Northern States..... 83,926,097

\$266,438,051

Trade between the United States and France, Spain, and Cuba.

Total exports to France..... \$41,828,465

Total exports to Spain..... 7,366,329

Total exports to Cuba..... 7,199,055

\$56,393,829

Of the exports to France, cotton amounted to... \$21,195,546
 Of the exports to Spain, " " ... 6,851,617

\$27,047,163

Thus out of \$49,194,794 of exports to France and Spain, there were \$27,047,163 of cotton.

The imports to United States from France..... \$49,016,062
 The imports to United States from Spain..... 2,232,466
 The imports to United States from Cuba..... 24,435,693

\$75,684,221

Thus showing the aggregate of imports and exports to be \$132,088,050; and it is in favor of this commerce, being one-fifth of that of the Union, that I ask that a line of mail steamers should be established between New Orleans and France, via Havana.

Number of vessels cleared, and tonnage of same, for France.

	No.	Tonnage.		No.	Tonnage.
From New York...	171.	140,074	From Boston.....	28....	10,481
" New Orleans, "	148.	109,524	" Savannah....	" 12....	6,294
" Charleston...	" 54.	28,655	" Baltimore...	" 15....	8,214
" Mobile.....	" 46.	36,324	" Philadelphia "	" 2....	1,213

Number of vessels cleared, and tonnage of same, for Spain.

New Orleans, No. 148, tonnage 49,482	Mobile, No. 17, tonnage..... 3,620
Charleston.. " 83, " 20,309	Boston, " 9, " 1,840
New York.. " 65, " 18,163	

Number of vessels cleared, and tonnage of same, for Cuba.

New York, No. 513, tonnage 198,821	Philadelphia, No. 91, tonnage 20,792
Boston... " 248, " 68,192	Charleston.. " 71, " 28,765
N. Orleans. " 117, " 55,590	Mobile..... " 48, " 12,499

The total tonnage entered and cleared.

New York..... 3,202,282 tons.	Baltimore..... 312,634 tons.
New Orleans..... 1,436,229 "	Philadelphia..... 302,917 "
Boston..... 1,329,569 "	Charleston..... 282,630 "
Mobile..... 482,467 "	

From these tables of the tonnage entered into and cleared from the principal cities of the Union, it appears that New Orleans stands second in total tonnage; that her trade with France is second only to that of New York; that her trade with Spain is greater than that of all the rest of the United States; and that her trade with Cuba is exceeded by that of New York and Boston only.

The report of the Committee of the House of Representatives upon this proposed line of mail steamers, contains the following language:

"The postal communication of a nation, whether domestic or foreign, should be frequent, regular, rapid, and must be viewed as a commercial and political measure.

"In the present infancy of ocean steam navigation, no steamship has been constructed for ocean navigation which could carry a cargo of passengers and freight sufficiently large, even at high rates, to pay more than the actual daily expenses of running the steamer, entailing thus upon the owners loss of the entire capital invested, and it is a fact undisputed, that a fast rate of speed of an ocean steamer entails an enormous expense, besides a great increase of wear of machinery, which necessitates large increase of expenses for repairs. Mathematical calculations and actual experience prove that a steamship of three thousand tons will run, in thirteen days, thirty-one hundred miles for fifteen thousand dollars less than if she increase her speed so as to accomplish the same distance in eleven days. To obtain rapidity of communication with foreign countries, which is a great essential of all postal communications, we must look to Government for its fostering care and pecuniary aid.

"Your committee have carefully examined the statistics of the trade and commerce of that portion of the United States, the chief city of which is the terminus of this route in the United States, and are of opinion, from all the facts in the case, that there is no ocean mail route more important to the commercial as well as postal interests of the United States, and that it presents the strongest claims for the favorable action of Congress.

"The entire people of the United States will be benefitted by this route, because it will bring the producers of our staple product (cotton,) in direct trade and correspondence with one of the largest consumers of that article, and thereby save the commissions and freights paid to agents and factors.

"The proposed route extends a distance of 4,820 miles, and the memorialists design to maintain a line of first class side-wheel steamships, of at least fifteen hundred tons each, with marine engines, and they ask, for the round trip of 9,640 miles, the sum of \$25,000. They are prepared to begin the service within sixty days from the passage of the act authorizing a contract to be made with them.

"The committee are inclined to believe that the revenue from postages by this route would bear a larger ratio to the expenses than that received from any other ocean mail route, and they deem the compensation asked as moderate, considering the great distance to be run, it being 3,440 miles longer than the route between New York and Liverpool, and 2,156 miles longer than the route between New York and Gluckstadt."

The undersigned submits the above to the Planters, Merchants, and Bankers of the South and West, and invites them to unite with him in the establishment of this proposed line of steamers—the benefits from which will not be confined to New Orleans, but they will extend as far as the navigable waters of the Mississippi and its tributaries reach.

WILLIAM C. BARNEY.

WASHINGTON CITY, *March 15, 1857.*

COOLIES—CUBA AND EMANCIPATION.

For the following we are indebted to the Hon. Thomas L. Clingman. It is taken from his speech in Congress upon the British Policy in Central America and Cuba.

But to show how this system of transporting and selling into slavery these Coolies is managed by Great Britain and Spain, I will, in the first place, ask the attention of the House to the decrees of the Spanish Government. They were transmitted to the British Government by Lord Howden, its Minister at

Madrid, and are contained in a volume of the State Papers. They bear date, as signed by the Queen, March 22, 1854. Their examination shows that the Coolies are, in fact, no better than slaves. Even the provisions made especially for their benefit show this; and I read a few as specimens:

By the twentieth article, "The colonist may contract marriage with the consent of their masters."

By the thirty-fourth article, "Forbidden to leave the estate without written permission of master," &c.

The thirty-eighth article provides "That they shall not be compelled to work more than twelve hours on the average."

By the thirty-ninth article, "They shall not be obliged to work more than fifteen hours in one day, and shall always have at least six consecutive hours of rest by night or by day."

Look at these provisions, and tell me if the slaves are in any State of this Union worked on an average, throughout the year, twelve hours per day, or if they are obliged, at any season, to labor for as much as fifteen hours. As to giving them six consecutive hours for rest, why, most field negroes in the South would sleep twice that period of time if they did not get hungry while so doing.

Article sixty-one declares for what offences they shall be punished, as follows:

"1. Insubordination to the master, to the superintendents, or any other delegate of the master.

"2. Refusal to work, or want of punctuality in any particular piece of work.

"3. Injuries which do not oblige the party injured to suspend work.

"4. Desertion.

"5. Drunkenness.

"6. Infraction of the rules of discipline established by the master.

"7. Offences against good manners not constituting crimes, &c.

"8. Any other act done with malice, and from which injury or damage accrues to a third person, &c.

"ART. 64. When the punishments pointed out in article fifty-six are not sufficient to prevent the colonist from repeating the same, or committing other offences, the master shall apply to the protector, who if the act constitutes an offence according to the laws, shall decide that the guilty colonist shall be punished by them; and if not, by additional disciplinary punishment."

By these decrees it is provided that the inhabitants of China and Yucatan may be imported. The Chinese are white people, and the Yucatanese are Indians; and it might be supposed that these two races ought to be sufficient for the Island of Cuba.

I find, however, in the newspapers, another proposition made to the Spanish Government, though I am not prepared to say that it has actually been adopted. If not already sanctioned, I suppose it will be, as it is strictly in accordance with the policy heretofore established:

"1. Her Catholic Majesty shall concede to the contractor (Señor Meana) the usufruct of Fernando Po, Annobom, and Corisco, with their wild and cleared

lands, for the term of twenty years from the date of the concession, giving him also an assistance of \$20,000 yearly."

"11. He shall be authorized to transport to the Island of Cuba, to the exclusion of all others, under contract for the term of eight years, such inhabitants of the said islands as voluntarily, and without any kind of coercion, may agree to come to it, under the following condition:

"The grantee shall not receive in repayment of all cost, from the masters to whom the persons contracted shall be assigned, and to whom, with this view, their contracts shall be transferred, a greater sum than \$204 for such as are between eighteen and forty-five years of age, and \$136 for such as are between eight and eighteen."

The Island of Fernando Po, I need hardly remind the House, is situated in the Gulf of Guinea, in sight of the main land, and in fact within some thirty miles of Old Calabar, a principal station for the African slave trade. Of course, the people taken from this region will be *Guinea negroes*. But it is provided that none shall be taken away but those who agree to go. Who will they be, sir. Why, it is well known that annually large numbers of slaves are brought from the interior to the coast to be sold, and when purchasers are not found they are slaughtered in large gangs, because their masters are afraid to turn them loose; I mean the males. The females are bought usually by the Kroomen along the shore; and, as I have been informed by our Navy officers stationed on that coast, they command sixteen dollars apiece, while the male negroes may be worth only six. Of course these negroes, when they find that it is a choice between death and transportation, will agree to take the latter, and will thus be enrolled.

The provision limiting price for the first class to \$204, is pregnant with suggestions. It is not intended to cripple or diminish the trade, since it is clear that, even at these rates, enormous profits will be made by the shippers and sellers. It is, on the contrary, directly intended to increase the traffic to the most frightful extent, as the supply is inexhaustible. By thus putting them at a low rate, the purchasers will be more tempted. The planters of Cuba, seeing that their island is to be ruined anyhow, will be forced to conclude that it is their true interest to get as many of these creatures as possible, and work them even to death in eight years. Every one knows that he who hires a horse for a short period is apt to take less care of him and work him harder than the owner would do. Then it may be assumed that not many will survive this period. But should they even do so, and be then in good faith liberated, how many of them will, in fact, ever reach Africa again? Who that knows the Guinea negro expects them to return by force of this *Spanish contract*? No, sir, they will remain there; and these negroes, by their mixture with the Chinese Coolies, the Yucatanese Indians, and the present black and mongrel population of Cuba, will fill the island with a body of savages, so

that such of the planters as have the means of emigrating will be forced to do so, and thus this beautiful gem of the Antilles will soon be in a worse condition than it was when Columbus crossed the Atlantic.

The acts of the British Government justify us in assuming that, as she sees that the West India Islands are likely to be ours, she has deliberately resolved to ruin them as far as it in her power lies. This is, however, all professed to be done in the name of humanity! How long is it, sir, since Great Britain, in one year, permitted more than two millions of her Irish subjects to starve to death? Why, the newspapers state—whether truly or not I cannot tell—that more than twenty-one thousand of them perished in this way during the past year. These things are permitted to occur, without any real or sincere effort to prevent them. In fact, what she has spent on her African fleet would have been more than sufficient, if properly directed, to have saved the lives of every one of those white people. Then look to the frightfully cruel system that is carried on by her in India. There, a population more than five times as great as that of the whole United States is subjected to the most grinding oppression. The land is owned in places by the Government, and the people are compelled to work it, and pay one-half, and even more in some provinces, as rent. To collect this exorbitant amount, torture is habitually applied to the miserable laborers. There is no doubt about this matter. The British Parliament was forced, by public opinion at home, to appoint a commission to go to India and take testimony. Their report, officially made, shows that, to force the laborers to perform more than human nature is capable of, there are constantly and systematically applied tortures which surpass in variety and cruelty those of the famous Spanish Inquisition, or even such as the imagination of antiquity was able to invent for application in the infernal regions. The mind absolutely shrinks back from the atrocities of these details. A large per centage of the immense population of the country has already perished most miserably by these tortures, and the famines consequent on such exactions. And yet, sir, though these matters have thus been made public in England, and also in this country, and during the last year, by myself and others, commented on, yet they have been completely ignored by that portion of our press and those orators that profess to have in their especial charge all matters pertaining to freedom and humanity. Is it not a strange spectacle, sir? But so absorbed are the Abolitionists in their idolatry of everything English, that if it could speak to them in a voice louder than seven thunders, they would not hear these things. Yes, sir, if the idea was sharpened to the keenest point possible, and

then driven by the force of an engine of ten thousand horse power, it would not be able to make a lodgment in their brains. No, sir, the genuine Abolitionist would look you right in the face, with the stolid, stupid insensibility of a stone image. Mr. Chairman, suppose a man were to tell you that he was shocked by your cruelty to your slaves, or servants; and at the same time you knew that, with ample means in his hands, he allowed his own children to starve to death from time to time, and that he also had seized upon other persons, and because they did not perform tasks that exceeded the powers of human nature, was torturing them to death by every sort of devilish device that malice and cruelty could suggest, would you believe in that man's humanity? Then, sir, I do not believe in this kind of British humanity.

The beautiful islands that stud our American Mediterranean are in this way likely to be made desolate, and to become the abode of savages. Should they fall into our hands in the march of events, they will present serious obstacles in the way of turning them to a proper account. How long did it take the Pilgrims to kill, or otherwise get clear of, the Pequods and other Indians in New England? What obstacles did not the savages present to the settlement of the Southern States? If Great Britain should merely retard the occupation of these islands for twenty-five or fifty years, this would be a great deal gained to her, as she thinks, in the race between the two countries. If all these islands are placed in the condition that St. Domingo now is, how are they to be made to answer the purpose for which Providence seems to have intended them? There is a precedent in English history which is brought to mind. In the year 1066, one William, Duke of Normandy, surnamed the Conqueror, crossed the British channel with a body of his followers. He beat down the English, killed their monarch, and seized upon the island. He then divided its territory and inhabitants among his followers. I cannot say, Mr. Chairman, that I approve of this precedent, because the fair-haired, white-skinned Saxons then enslaved have since shown that they are eminently worthy of the freedom that they have by their intellect and courage recovered.

But would the same remark apply to the negro race anywhere? Suppose that Lopez, Walker, or some other *Norman* or *South-man* fillibuster, should make a decent on St. Domingo, confiscate the island, and divide its territory and people (such, at least, as did not choose to emigrate from it) among his followers, the civilized world would be a gainer, and its present population probably not losers by the operation. I rather think, with Carlyle, the English writer, that Cuffee, living lazily on squashes, has no right to expect that he is forever to in-

cumber these fine islands; but that somebody or other will, one of these days, set him to work, and make him produce sugar, coffee, and the like things, which Providence seems to have intended these islands to yield for the benefit of mankind. At least, Cuffee's title to obstruct a proper use of these West Indies is not better than was that of the original savages and wolves to hold, against our present system of civilization, these banks of the Potomac, on which our magnificent Capitol now stands.

THE CONSERVATIVE PRINCIPLE; OR, SOCIAL EVILS AND THEIR REMEDIES.

The author of the following article has prepared and published several valuable works, among them a late one entitled "Cannibals all, or Slaves without Masters," which have for their aim a defence of slavery from a higher standpoint, and a refutation of those who claim what is called free society to be a panacea for every ill. Without assenting or dissenting, we shall give with pleasure his views in this and the next number of the Review.

The Republican majority in the House of Representatives, and the large sectional vote obtained by Fremont, are facts which, taken alone, suffice to show that our Union is imperiled. As the danger becomes more imminent, the thoughtful, the prudent, and the patriotic, should combine more closely, and redouble their efforts to avert it—for none but the rash, the thoughtless, and the wicked, can look with indifference to an event so pregnant with consequences, for weal or woe, not only to Americans, but to all civilized mankind.

Our Union is the great asylum for the starving millions of Europe who have got the means to emigrate, and largely helps to feed and clothe those who are too poor to remove.

The civilized world is now, and has been for years, suffering from the insufficient production of food and clothing, the essential necessities of life. Get up civil war and disunion in America, and subtract thereby the present American surplus from this already insufficient supply, and hunger and nakedness would afflict and decimate a large portion of mankind—at least until new agricultural regions were developed, and large accessions to agricultural labor obtained from some quarter. Much time would be required to effect such sanitary results; and, in the interim, the amount of human suffering likely to ensue, appals the imagination. A famine in Ireland carries off in a single season three hundred thousand souls, and expels three millions from their homes. A civil war in America would be a potatoe-rot for Christendom. Her

surplus of meat, of grain, and of cotton, would, for a time at least, vanish, and human souls might, by the million, vanish with it.

We have said that they who could look with *indifference* to disunion must be wicked; yet, we do say, that thousands of good men desire it, in order to avert greater evils which they apprehend from a continuance of the Union. We, too, see these latter evils: we have probed them to the bottom. They are startling in number, in magnitude, and enormity; but we cannot escape them by flight; we must meet them face to face, and conquer them. Disunion would precipitate their advent, and increase their strength. The South, separated from the rest of Christendom, might produce vastly more of the necessaries and comforts of life than she could consume; but a world at war with her institutions, and starving for the want of her products, might not respect her rights. The hungry millions of Christendom would easily find a Peter the Hermit, or an Alaric, to head and lead an invasion of her soil. If none others flocked to such a standard, our neighbors of the free States, with a yearly accession of three hundred thousand immigrants from Europe, would not be despicable, either in strength, courage, or numbers. Bigotry and fanaticism, nakedness and hunger, impelling them, and the fair fields and luscious and abundant fruits of the South inviting them, they would at least give us occupation enough, to leave us neither time or labor for the production of an agricultural surplus.

Yet, such invasion, even if successful, would be ten times more disastrous to the rest of Christendom than to the South. It would not only arrest the production of our agricultural surplus, but might, by abolishing slavery, cut off that surplus forever. Like Mexico, the West Indies, and South America, the South would become useless to the world at large. Still, if the present white population of the South continued to hold the lands, hunger and nakedness could never afflict us, however our civilization might decline.

Now, let us calmly and rigidly inquire for what peculiar offence the South is arraigned, the Union endangered, and all Christendom threatened with war, nakedness, and famine. The institution of domestic slavery, as it exists at the South, as it has existed, until recently, throughout the world, and as it now exists in nine-tenths of the world, is the commonly assigned cause for these impending disasters.

But the true cause of quarrel lies deeper. It is not mere negro slavery, but the slavery principle; slavery in every form, that the great moral and intellectual movement of the day proposes to remedy and remove. Those who feel so much for the negroes of the West Indies and of America, *begin* to feel

quite as much for wives, children, apprentices, wards, sailors, soldiers, and hirelings—nay, for all the weak and the poor, for they *begin* to discover that the principle and the practice of slavery is found interwoven with all human relations and human institutions as now existing, and with unflinching philanthropy they have resolved to “cut sheer asunder” all those relations. They most consistently and courageously wage war against slavery in every form. The principle and the practice wherever found must be eradicated, and a *transition* effected from the present state of society, to a millennial, an agrarian, or communistic status. Government, they agree, is but slavery variously modified, from slavery to law, down to jails, penitentiaries, stocks, manacles, and the gallows; all human government, must, therefore, be abolished and the “sovereignty of the individual,” “free-love,” “attractive labor,” and “passional attraction” supply its place. It is time now, high time, that conservatism should take its stand, and begin its defence. Yet, what do we see! The whole *active* intellect of Christendom, headed by such men as Proudhon and Andrews, busy in writing novels, and poems, and philosophical books, and essays, and lectures, and sermons, directly assailing every existing governmental arrangement. We see their whole literature tinctured and tainted with every shade of revolutionary radicalism; and yet conservatism folds its arms with supine indifference, and makes not an effort at defence. There is not, we believe, one single avowedly conservative anti-socialistic press in the world, whilst we have no doubt there are a hundred organs of the isms even in our North—many hundreds more in Europe. The numbers, the zeal, the audacity, and the ability of our enemies, render them formidable now, and if not soon opposed, will render them irresistible. Conservatives, North and South, in Europe and America, have everything sacred, dear, and precious in this world, and the next, at stake, and should combine on some common ground in active and efficient defence. Our adversaries have marked out that ground for us so distinctly that we cannot mistake it. They make war, they say, on the principle and practice of slavery in every form, and further say, that all human government and all human institutions involve slavery, and therefore they would destroy all. Andrews, the Proudhon of America, declares in his lectures, that New York would govern itself much better without a police. The “better classes” in New York, (or some of them,) applaud the suggestion; Andrews gets up a saloon of free-love to try the interesting experiment, but cruel Mayor Wood nips it in the bud. This was the first actual collision of the opposite principles and practices of government and no government, of the sovereignty

of society and the sovereignty of the individual, of slavery and of anti-slavery. The free-lovers came off worsted; but they gather courage, and numbers too, from defeat, and displayed in the great battle of the Presidential election, a strength, a courage, and a zeal, greater than ever exhibited before. We do not pretend to say that every Black Republican in America understands the principles, the theories, and the aims of his party, as well as Andrews in America; nor do the Red Republicans, the same party in Europe, stand along side of Proudhon. The mass but follow, whilst Proudhon and Louis Blanc, and Andrews and Garrison, and such like philosophers, lead and direct the movement.

A social revolution certainly impends throughout free society, and that revolution, directed at first against negro slavery, now proposes to destroy all religion, all government, and all private property, because the principle and practice of slavery are found to exist in them, and in all other existing human institutions.

The defence of Southern slavery involves, necessarily, the defence of every existing human institution, because they are all alike assailed by abolition as modifications of slavery itself. You of the North cannot conquer them, without taking issue with them. You cannot admit their premises and deny their conclusions. If slavery be wrong in principle, wrong in the abstract, then all governmental institutions are wrong, and should be abolished. If negro slavery be wrong because it is slavery, then are marriage, and church government, and separate ownership of lands, and parental authority equally wrong, unless it be proved that white slavery, which these institutions occasion, is free from the objections which apply to all other kinds of slavery. Conservatives, North or South, have not an inch of ground to stand upon, unless they at once boldly and distinctly take the position, that slavery in the abstract, slavery in the general, slavery in principle, is right, natural, and necessary. Right, natural, and necessary, because it has been universal, for there is no so-called free society in the world in which four-fifths of the people are not slaves, governed and controlled, not by mere law, but by the will and *ipse dixit* of superiors; right, also, because it is sanctioned alike by human and divine law.

The slavery principle is common ground, on which conservatives, North and South, may combine, and from which they may assail abolition and socialism, defend and preserve the Union, protect the sanctity of marriage, secure private property, maintain parental authority, and conserve all other institutions.

We defy human ingenuity to meet and make headway

against the movement that threatens the subversion of society on any other terms but these.

Aye, says some Northern or Southern man, we agree that slavery is wrong in principle, wrong in the general, wrong in the abstract, but negroes are a sort of monkeys and form an exception, they ought to be slaves, at least till we can improve and educate them and send them back to Africa. "Agreed," says the strong-minded bloomer, "you yield the principle, and as white women are not monkeys, you have given up the marriage relation, which subjects them to slavery. We'll compromise; set the women free and hold the negroes in slavery." "Agreed," says the infidel. "You admit white slavery to be wrong, and thereby admit the Bible, which establishes and justifies it, to be false. Help me to oust the parsons and burn the churches and the Bible, and you may keep your 'interesting negroes.'" "Agreed," says the agrarian. "You will go in with me for a general division of the lands, because land monopoly begets white slavery, and you defend only negro slavery." "Agreed," says Proudhon, Andrews, and all the socialists. "Tis true we are opposed to all government, but since you have yielded the slavery principle, and given up all the other institutions of society, we defy you to hold your negroes. You are practically socialists." Yes, mere negro slavery is socialism, minus the darkies, and they would soon be forced into the common mass of free-love, free-lands, free-negroes, and free-women.

The defence of negro slavery as an exceptional institution is the most absurdly untenable proposition that ever was maintained by man. Yet we are glad to hear men propound it, because they are sure not to stop there. The arguments and facts that convince them of the propriety of negro slavery will soon carry them further, and they will find that slavery in every form is right and necessary, as times, place, and circumstances vary. Just as abolitionists, beginning with the assertion that negro slavery is immoral and iniquitous, find themselves gradually driven to the conclusion that all government is but slavery in different degrees, so negro slavery defenders will find that the only arguments by which they can defend that institution apply to all forms of slavery, and to all subordination of rank or office.

The greatest objection to confining the defence of slavery to the negro and giving up the general principle is, that it cuts off conservatives of the South from alliance with conservatives of the North. *There*, it is various modifications of white slavery, or quasi-slavery, that abolition and socialism assail; and we, by yielding the principle of slavery, in effect concede that all the destructive plans and purposes of abolition and

socialism, at home, are right. We cannot consistently help Northern conservatives to defend their hearths and homes against the free-lover, the infidel, and the agrarian, because we have in effect admitted that these worse than Gothic invaders are right. Other institutions of society, than domestic slavery, are not yet assailed at the South, but if socialism demoralizes, disintegrates, and subverts society in Western Europe and our North, it will be too late to oppose it when it invades the South.

We employ the term slavery in this essay in a broader sense than is usually given to it; yet we employ it with precision and accuracy, as well as comprehensiveness.

First. Because it is thus broadly used and applied by our opponents, the Isms of the day, and to meet their issues fully we must accept the term as intended and defined by them. And, secondly and chiefly, because their use and definition of the term slavery is correct.

The two best criteria of slavery are, "a social status in which the will of the superior controls and directs the will and action of the inferior," or "a social condition in which man becomes the property of his fellow man."

Take either criterion, and all human government is manifestly slavery. In despotic governments the will and conduct of all subjects may be controlled by an autocrat; in democracies by a majority; in armies, navies, and the merchant service by superior officers; in families by the parent or master; on farms, in stores, in every business operation of life, by the employer. The negro slave is not controlled and directed in all his actions by his master. The freest white citizen *is controlled* and directed in much of his conduct by his government. We are by birth and nature the creatures and slaves of society, and therefore none altogether free; but we have individual rights and responsibilities of which no form of slavery can or intends entirely to divest us.

Society is of itself the practical assertion that "man has property in man." He cannot live alone. By mere force of nature, by intuitive necessity, the strong protect and control the weak, the weak serve and obey the strong; but the property in each case is mutual. The husband is, by nature as well as law, master of wife and children, and bound to provide for, protect, and govern them; they are his property, but he is equally theirs. This is the germ and nucleus of all government, and of all property of man in man. All the other institutions of society carry out into practice the principle, that all men have property in each other, and that none are free; all belong to society, which is bound to protect, to govern, and to provide for all. The shipwrecked mariner on any civilized

coast has as valuable a property in us all as the highest official in the land; we are taxed to relieve and sustain him, and the pauper tax in old countries is much larger than that which pays the salaries of officials.

If the socialists would institute a rigorous analysis of all societies, they would find their institutions differing in little but name; find them all of natural growth and origin, slightly varied by time, law, and circumstances, and all intended to control individual will and action, and to enforce the right of property of man in his fellow man.

The slavery principle is almost the only principle of government, the distinctive feature of man's social and dependent nature, and the only cement that binds society together and wards off anarchy.

You, conservatives of the North, whom we particularly address, will at once concur with us, that slavery in some form, (using the word as the abolitionists and other isms employ it,) is a necessity of man's nature, from which none but a Robinson Crusoe or a hermit can escape. Yet, whilst we believe

"There is a Divinity that shapes our ends,
Rough hew them how they will!"

still much of detail is left for human volition, judgment, action, and discretion. Slavery is a curse or a blessing, just as it is administered, and for its proper administration individuals and societies are conjointly responsible. We will listen with pleasure to you, when you advise or suggest as to how we shall improve the condition of our negro slaves. That condition is now vastly better than that of the free white laborer of Western Europe, and is continually ameliorating as the negro advances in civilization, and is enhanced in value. Some legislation there, ought to be to protect slaves, as well as to protect wives, children, apprentices, and sailors and soldiers; but much legal interference in these relations is worse than none. Slaves are well treated in Virginia, where there is scarce any law to protect them; most inhumanly treated in Cuba, where there are a great many laws intended to secure to them good treatment. In the general, in all natural relations, of which domestic slavery is one, Providence, which ordains the relation, throws around it adequate checks to prevent its abuse.

Ambition impels the strong to acquire power, and the benevolent affections incline men to exercise power, to cherish, protect, provide for, and govern, not to oppress the weak whom they have vanquished. There is a strength in weakness and dependence, in the successful appeals which they make to our pity, our sympathy, and compassion, that present, in the general, sufficient checks to tyrannical exercise of power by superiors. But there are sporadic cases in society—cowardly, cruel

masters, husbands, officers, and employers, who require the intervention and the penalties of the law to restrain or to punish them. Man may and should regulate slavery by law. He cannot abolish it, and all attempts to do so but substitutes slavery to capital for slavery to human masters, and greatly aggravates the evils they profess to heal.

To meet the issues as now tendered by the Black Republicanisms, conservatives are compelled to maintain that slavery in the abstract is right, but are not bound to uphold or approve any particular form of slavery. Each State has the right, and best understands how to manage its own social and domestic affairs. They are eminently matters for State legislation, just as our foreign relations are very properly and wisely left to the administration of the Federal Government. Negro slavery is not profitable or useful at the North, and the area and forms of *white* slavery should not be increased whilst there is room in the unsettled portions of the earth for free laborers to be come proprietors. It is better to be a proprietor than a slave. There can never possibly be a cordial union of the conservatives of the North and the South in the defence of *African* slavery, for that commits Northern men to defend all its actual and imputed abuses—to defend the cruelties of the African slave trader and the West India driver, and the imputed cruelties of the fictitious Legrees of the South. Nor would we have them defend our peculiar social institutions. Hands off! is what we ask and demand. But as a general principle all the conservatives are equally and jointly interested throughout the world in maintaining that slavery is right, natural, and necessary. This is the only common ground on which we can meet—the only way to save the Union—to save religion, marriage, property, government—nay, society itself. 'Tis true the success of socialism would but usher in a short spasmodic interim of anarchy, soon to be succeeded by military despotism, and the reconstruction of old institutions in some form, but society would suffer “more pangs than wars or women have” ere it reached the calm of despotism.

But what earthly good end or purpose could be advanced by a union of the North and the South in the defence of mere African slavery, if we left all the rest of the line of defence exposed and at the mercy of the invaders. Permit them to pull down the churches, burn the Bible, divide our lands, annul marriage, inaugurate free-love, no government and anarchy—on all of which measures they are now equally and as actively bent, as on the abolition of negro slavery—permit them to do all this, and save only the negroes from the wreck of a ruined world! If saved, they would be of no use, but they could not long be saved. The storm that had carried off

all other institutions would soon sweep away negro slavery. North and South conservatives are equally interested in adopting a broader platform, one co-extensive with that of the isms who assail us. The slavery principle, the first and leading principle of all society, and of all government, is what they assail, and what we must defend.

But the recognition and adoption of this principle will avail as naught, so long as we continue idle, indifferent, and passive. We must imitate their zeal and activity. Our cause is a better one; our numbers and our means greater. We must meet agitation by counter-agitation; propagandism by counter-propagandism. We must establish and support presses, deliver lectures, and write books and essays, to sustain the cause of government against anarchy, of religion against infidelity, of private property against agrarianism, and of female virtue and christian marriage against free-love. We must invoke the strong, all-pervading arm of christian common law which our ancestry brought from England. *Aeneas*, in the hurry of his flight from sacked, burning Troy, forgot not his lares and penates, his household gods; nor did our ancestors, flying from oppression, leave their laws and religion behind. It is time to invoke their aid, for our people are forgetting the arm that conducted them from a worse than Egyptian bondage to a fairer and ampler land than Palestine. They deal with "familiar spirits;" they worship Mammon and Belial, and deny the God who saved them. "Ishuran waxed fat and kicked." The common law, in the hands of such men as Mayor Wood, would reach and punish every offence; for contempt or disturbance of christianity, as usually practiced and understood by Anglo-Saxon communities; violations of decency and of christian morality, and all acts or words, written or spoken, that tend directly to disturb the peace, security, and good order of society, are breaches of the common law, and punishable by it.

Justices of the peace, grand juries, petit juries, and judges, at the South, would find law pretty soon to put down such presses as the *Tribune* and the *Liberator*, to gag Parker and Beecher, negro Remond, and the wise women; to cage or to duck the bloomers, and to punish, with due severity, free-lovers, incestuous Omida perfectionists, and Mormon polygamists.

Mayor Wood is the active impersonation of the conservative idea. We have plenty of such men in our ranks; we must put them in office; we want no theorizing do-nothings, no bland, cunning, non-committal courtiers, no transcendental abstractionists. The times need stern, active, rigid, severe men. Armed with the Constitution, the common law, and the

bible, such men will cleanse the augean stable of the isms as easily as Mayor Wood purified the love saloon in New York.

Society requires "reversed action." All its chords are unstrung; they must be screwed up to greater tensivity. Visionary schismatics and speculative philosophers seized upon the reformation, and have been busy ever since in converting what was intended for salutary and moderate reform, into revolution, and conducting revolution into anarchy. Luther excommunicated as freely as the Pope, Calvin burnt Servetus, and Henry the Eighth, defender of the faith, with admirable impartiality, sent Protestant and Catholic to the stake on the same hurdle. But those were days of law and order—days when society had rights as well as individuals—when men were punished, and justly punished, for violating the peace, good order, and security of society, no matter what the pretence. The right of private judgment, liberty of speech, liberty of the press, and freedom of religion, were not absolute, unlimited, unconditional rights, but only so far to be enjoyed and exercised as not to conflict with the institutions, the usages, the established moral and religious sentiments, and the laws of the country. The "sovereignty of the individual" was not yet dreamed of. Locke first dreamed it, and was ingenious enough to pass off his monstrous vision as a sober reality; for his social contract presupposes the sovereignty of each individual, or party, to that contract. This was a monstrous stride towards anarchy; yet, it admitted that men had given up *some rights*, and that government had *some functions* to perform.

It remained for Adam Smith to define the duties of that government, which Locke had emasculated. This task Smith performed with a master's hand. The whole business, function, duty, and office of government, he discovered, is to "let alone" (*Laissez-faires*) to do nothing. Simpler than Zekiel Bigelows churn; its simplicity recommended it to general favor and acceptance—anybody could govern on this principle, and all might aspire to be governors. Here was at last found a philosophical panacea, a moral rule, that satisfied all the social, ethical, economical, and governmental wants of men; men love simplicity, and have been following quacks, as well in medicine as in philosophy, from the earliest dawn of history to the present day. One philosophy succeeds and supplants another quite as surely, if not quite as fast, as one quack medicine gives way to a new one. Men change the fashion of their thoughts, as women change the color and the form of their bonnets. It is quite time, that this destructive and radical philosophy, beginning with the reformation, and culminating with Adam Smith, should decline, and be succeeded by an op-

posite system, that of conservatism. We think we see in the ridiculous excesses of the Red Republicans of Europe, and the isms of the North, the beginning of that decline. They are the practical "*reductio ad absurdum*" of the theories of Locke and Smith. Yet they are but corollaries from those theories. The social contract involves the idea of the sovereignty of the individual, and "let alone" begets and justifies free-love and no government. Mr. Andrews has demonstrated this in a masterly way, and no follower of Locke or of Swift can consistently censure him, nor any other leader of the isms of the North. Mobs, riots, revolutions, famines, superstitions, infidelities, are the order of the day, outside of slave society, the abundant and only fruits of the let-alone philosophy. Mr. Carlyle's description is poetical and truthful. "But in the days that are now passing over us, even fools are arrested to ask the meaning of them; few of the generations of men have seen more impressive days. Days of endless calamity, disruption, dislocation, confusion more confounded; if they are not days of endless hope too, then they are days of utter despair, for it is not a small hope that will suffice, the ruin being clearly, either in action or in prospect, universal. There must be a new world if there is to be any world at all!"

You, conservatives, North and South, must usher in, and inaugurate this new world. Adopt the slavery principle, vindicate the institution in the abstract, screw up the chords of society, tighten the reins of government, restrain and punish licentiousness in every form, scout and repudiate the doctrines of let alone, and "*Pas trop gouverner*," and govern much and rigorously. This is the only new world that we want.

In vindicating negro slavery as one of the established institutions of the country, and in aiding to perpetuate it and extend it into new territories, you will strengthen the Union and add to the prosperity of the North. Slavery has ever been in reality the strongest, almost the only bond of union between North and South. It begets diversity of pursuits and of products, supplies markets, supports trade and manufactures, occasions mutuality of dependence, and prevents undue rivalry and competition between the two sections. In its absence our pursuits and products would be similar, trade and intercourse would cease, the one would furnish no market to the other section, competition and rivalries would arise, and a useless and cumbrous Union would soon be dissolved. Slavery makes Europe dependent on us. We help greatly to feed and clothe her, and to sustain her commerce and manufactures. Blot out negro slavery, and you arrest the trade of the world, take away men's breakfast and supper, reduce their dinners, and strip them of half their clothing. African slavery is not king, but

pacificator and grand conservator of the peace of nations. Let Northern men calculate for themselves the consequences of its abolition, to the prosperity, the very existence of eastern Pennsylvania, eastern New York, and New England. For our part we think in such event their people had as well at once pull up stakes and remove to the Far West. Abolition would injure the South. It would ruin the Northeast.

Economically, the extension of slavery will injure the South and benefit the North. It will cheapen the raw material and enhance the price of manufactured articles. It will increase the trade and commerce of the North, multiply her customers, cheapen cotton, sugar, molasses, rice, meats, wheat, and Indian corn, and thus injure the South whilst it benefits the North. The extension of free society will have the exact opposite effect, and rear up rivals and competitors, instead of customers, for the old free States. The South desires slavery extension only as a means of defence against the inroad of abolition.

Sugar and coffee, rice, molasses, cotton, and all other negro slave products, are becoming very dear. Free laborers have to work longer and harder to procure them for their families. The emancipation of West India and South American negroes has diminished the supply and increased the price of these articles. Every accession of liberty to the negroes has been a diminution of the liberty of white working men. The negroes are fast relapsing into barbarism and paganism, and white laborers find that slavery removed from the negroes is imposed upon them. This is a very small foretaste of the mischief and the crime which abolition intends, and will perpetrate, unless speedily arrested. Affecting to be the friends of both, they are equally the enemies of the white working men and the negro slaves. They have made the latter idlers, savages, and pagans, and imposed harder labor on the former.

THE SLAVE TRADE.

Whilst we are discussing the morality of the Slave Trade, and voting upon it in Convention and in Congress, (and, by the way, the late Southern Convention, at Savannah, raised a Committee to report upon the subject at the next meeting,) the North is treating the matter as usual in a very practical point of view, as the following, from the New York Herald, will show:

It appears that in the port of New York alone, about twelve vessels are fitted out every year for the slave trade, and that Boston and Baltimore furnish each about the same number; making a fleet of thirty-six vessels, all employed in a commerce

which is denounced as inhuman by the civilized world. If to these be added the fleets fitted out at other Eastern ports besides Boston, we shall have a total of about forty vessels. Each slaver registers from one hundred and fifty to two hundred and fifty tons, and costs, when ready for sea, with provisions, slave equipments, and everything necessary for a successful trip, about eight thousand dollars. Here is a capital of \$320,000 to start with. The expenses of fitting out and of the voyage to Africa are estimated as follows:

Cost of forty slavers ready for sea.....	\$320,000
Expenses at the port for brokerage and commission, \$3,000 on each vessel.....	120,000
Captains and seamen's wages for the voyage....	160,000
Amount paid for negroes on the coast of Africa, at \$15 a head, allowing 600 to each vessel....	360,000
Port charges and secret money paid at the place of landing in Cuba, or other destination, \$42 for each negro, allowing a diminution of 100 in each vessel, by death on the passage.....	840,000
Total.....	\$1,800,000

From these figures it will be seen that the amount of capital required to fit out forty slavers, is about \$1,800,000, upon which the profits are so immense as to almost surpass belief.

In a single voyage of the slave fleet, upwards of twenty-four thousands human beings are carried off from different points on the slave coast, and of these, four thousand, or one-sixth of the whole number, become victims to the infliction of the middle passage, leaving twenty thousand fit for market.

For each of them the trader obtains an average of \$500, making a total for the whole twenty thousand, ten millions of dollars. Now, if the number of trips made by each vessel in a year be estimated at two, we will have this amount increased to twenty millions. Each vessel, it is true, can make three, and even four trips, but as some of them are destroyed after the first voyage, the number is placed at the lowest average.

The expenses and profits of the slave trade for a single year compare as follows:

Total receipts of do.....	\$20,000,000
Total expenses of two voyages.....	3,000,000
Profits.....	\$17,000,000

LOUISIANA AND TEXAS RAILROAD.

The fifth annual report of the New Orleans, Opelousas, and Great Western Railroad has been published. The assets for building the road have, up to this date, reached \$2,600,000, and eighty-one miles have been finished, with eleven miles of side track and three costly bridges. The company have lands at Gretna; swamp lands enough for all the timber they may need; depots at Algiers, Des Allemandes, Lafourche, Terrebonne, Tigerville, Bayou Boeuf, and will have one to build at the bay, with spacious wharves at the termini of the road, at a cost of about \$200,000, and a full equipment at a cost of \$237,000. Beyond this the credits yet unrealized and the stock of material on hand amounts to \$713,535.

The following are the results of the last year's business:

The gross earnings of the passenger trains in 1856 amount to.....	\$84,293 48
In 1855.....	56,316 11
Increase.....	\$27,977 37
Or about 49½ per cent.	
The gross earnings of the freight trains the past year were.....	\$122,071 96
In 1855.....	59,979 62
Increase.....	\$62,092 34
Or about 103½ per cent.	

The transportation expenses of the passenger trains (\$22,230 68) are equal to about 26½ per cent. of the gross earnings, and of the freight trains (\$72,426 87) equal to 59½ per cent. The total expenses on the whole gross earnings of passenger and freight trains, taken together, amount to 45½ per cent. A very large increase of business may be carried on, particularly in passengers, with very little additional expense, and this important advantage we may reasonably expect to realize the coming year.

Speaking of the importance of the Texas trade, engineer Bayly says:

"The commerce, the trade of New Orleans requires that the immense business of Texas should be secured to her, particularly when it is certain to be diverted by other and rival routes to the West and North, unless the Opelousas road is so constructed as to make it the interest of Texas to ship to and trade with New Orleans. This can only be effected by affording the shortest and most direct route from Texas to New Orleans, thus cheapening the cost of transportation and gaining time. These conditions are gained by building your road to the Sabine on the route for it mentioned, viz: from Opelousas

to the Sabine at Thompson's Bluff, about four and a half miles below the parallel of latitude 31 degrees north. The whole distance from New Orleans to the Sabine will be about 257 miles. Between New Iberia and Sabine, by this route, the road can be built for less than \$15,000 per mile, including iron, track-laying, cross-ties, &c.; or for everything except equipment. It will be apparent at a glance on the maps of Louisiana and Texas, that you will by this route connect New Orleans with the whole of Texas. From the Sabine, at the proposed crossing, roads might diverge north, northwest, west, southwest and south, and thus penetrate every portion of Texas, and tap every road which is or ever will be built in that great State. No part of Texas will be unconnected with you, and roads are already chartered which will effect this. To strike Texas near latitude 32 degrees would connect you only with northern Texas, and inasmuch as roads are now being built and somewhat advanced, connecting the seaboard with northern Texas, it is manifestly better to tap such roads by a short and cheap line, than to attempt to reach northern Texas by first traversing the whole of Louisiana at a cost of from five to seven millions.

THE SUGAR INTERESTS.—NO. 2.

I beg leave to say a few words upon some of the causes which affect the price of sugar, to which little if any attention has been given by those who treat the subject. Our supply of sugar is almost entirely derived from Louisiana and those parts of the United States lying along the Gulf of Mexico, and from the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, which lie in that gulf. Owing to the widely-spread position of the other sugar-growing countries of the earth, they being distributed through the two hemispheres and over all the degrees of longitude, a short crop in one country is always compensated by an abundant one in others; so that the production in those countries when taken together is pretty nearly equal, one year with another, through a series of years. But it is not so with the crops of the United States and the two Spanish islands. They are situated very near each other, and, owing to the physical features of the earth's surface and the character of the prevailing winds in the Gulf of Mexico, they are at the same time usually subjected to the same vicissitudes of climate as it respects humidity and dryness. The sugar crop, like every other crop, as every one at all acquainted with agricultural operations is fully aware, is abundant when there is the usual succession of sunshine and shower and the supply of moisture necessary for the growth of plants is proportioned to their wants, and it is

greatly deficient when the rains are excessive or droughts are long continued. It is these causes that produce the ordinary and usual fluctuations in the supply of sugar; and it so happens that, whether the crops suffer from rains or from dry weather in either of these sugar-producing regions, the other is almost always affected to a greater or less extent by the same extreme.

Gentlemen who look at the price-currents in New Orleans and Cuba will not, unless they have some acquaintance with the course and customs of trade at the two points, always arrive at a proper conclusion as to the price of sugar in those two markets. In Louisiana sugar is sold at a price fixed to cover the packages. There are no export duties to be paid. In the Havana, when the price is quoted, it is the price for sugar alone, and the package in which it is contained is to be paid for separately; it is valued separately, and subjected to a duty separately, and the export duty imposed on it there also makes another element in its cost to the purchaser in this country when it arrives as well as the duty to be paid to our Government. At times the prices of sugar, owing to abundant crops being produced in both countries at the same time, become nearly as low in Louisiana as they were in Cuba.

Gentlemen say, however, that it has been proved that the culture of sugar in Louisiana cannot supply the demand. If they were familiar with the progress of the culture they would probably think that there is greater reason to believe that it will supply the home demand much sooner than any other of those favorite branches of manufacturing industry which they now attempt to foster will, at any future day, supply the increasing demand of the American people. What is the total production of sugar in the world? and what proportion does the crop of Louisiana bear to it? Would the diminution of the crop in Louisiana affect the price? and would its withdrawal increase the price? All men at all acquainted with mercantile operations, at all acquainted with the manner in which the prices of the great staples are affected by a small diminution in the supply, ought to be able to answer that question. Why, sir, a deficiency in the grain crops of England has doubled the price of flour. War in Europe has doubled the price of pork, and of almost all those articles of food which enter into the general consumption of the world. And yet the increased demand consequent either upon the existence of war or a bad crop in one particular country would take but an inconsiderable portion of the mass of production which went to supply the necessities of the nations. But what would be the state of affairs in regard to the production of sugar? Have gentlemen looked into that? Have they ascertained

the present condition of the sugar culture in the world? Have they considered the proportion which the crop of Louisiana bears to the exportable crop of the world? I imagine not; and I will therefore call the attention of the committee to some facts.

The crop of the world, as I before stated, in 1833, is said, in McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary, to have amounted to 595,000 tons, or 1,195,000 hogsheads, such as are made in Louisiana. In 1844 the production of sugar in the world had risen to 780,000 tons, or 1,560,000 hogshead; in 1852 it had risen to 1,044,000 tons, or 2,088,000 hogsheads. Now, sir, if that was the amount of the crop in 1852-'53, what was the proportion furnished by Louisiana? Gentlemen seem to think that it is an inconsiderable interest, and that its production can be taken out of the market of the world without mischief to themselves. Allow me to call the attention of the committee to that branch of industry in Louisiana.

In 1753 the sugar-cane was for the first time introduced in Louisiana. Its culture made but little progress while the population was small. When the Territory of Louisiana was ceded to the United States the production was about 3,000 hogsheads. In 1823 the 3,000 hogsheads had become 30,000; in 1839-'40 the 30,000 hogsheads had swelled to 119,000; in 1852-'53 the crop had swelled to 321,000; and in 1853-'54 it had risen to the enormous quantity of 449,000 hogsheads—a progress and an augmentation in the production of a great staple that is without parallel in the United States, or indeed in the world in any branch of industry.

And now let us see the proportion which the production of sugar has hitherto borne and now bears in Louisiana to the production of sugar throughout the world. The exportable production of sugar, as far as I have been able to ascertain from the limited investigation I have been able to give the subject at this time, in all the sugar-growing countries of the world, (as may be seen in McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary, and the paper of P. L. Simonds, copied into the 19th volume of De Bow's Review,) in 1833, 1844, and 1852, was about as follows:

1833.....	595,000 tons,	equal to about	1,195,000 hhds.
1844.....	780,000 “ “ “		1,560,000 “
1852.....	1,044,000 “ “ “		2,088,000 “

Taking these statements as correct, and I have no reason to distrust their correctness, then the crop of Louisiana bore these proportions with respect to the exportable production of the world, at the several periods mentioned: in 1833 about one-fifteenth; in 1844 about one-eighth; in 1852 about one-sixth; and in 1853 nearly one-fourth.

In 1854, then, according to these statements of McCulloch and Simonds, nearly one-fourth of all the sugar produced upon the face of the globe was made in the State of Louisiana; and yet gentlemen say that the interest is inconsiderable. They think they can strike at it without injury to themselves. What would be the result? For my own part, I am perfectly persuaded that, if you touch that interest, if you strike at it with an unfriendly hand, you will diminish its production there permanently; and that, with its diminution there, the price of sugar will steadily increase. Why? Because from the year 1833 up to this time, the culture of sugar has not materially increased in the rest of the world out of the United States and Cuba; and it seems, from the statistics before me, that nearly all the increase in the production of sugar since that time has taken place in the Island of Cuba and in Louisiana.

We append the following statistics to Mr. Taylor's remarks:

Production, Import, and Consumption of Sugar in the United States, 1856.

From 1st Jan. to 31st Dec., 1856.	Hhds. and tierces.	Barrels.	Boxes.	Bags.	Total tons.
At New York.....	231,602	23,941	108,759	269,336	171,156
Boston.....	28,033	1,909	73,860	189,285	38,657
Philadelphia.....	28,962	2,931	16,294	24,955	22,182
Baltimore.....	23,855	8,019	16,983	8,357	19,196
New Orleans.....	7,026	1,953	39,202	11,579
Other ports.....	19,673	3,203	8,943	12,892
Total receipts.....	339,151	41,956	264,039	491,933	275,662
Add stock at all the ports, January 1, 1856.....	5,104	15,767	5,950
Total supply.....	344,255	41,956	279,806	491,933	281,613
Deduct Exports and Shipments inland to Canada from all the ports in 1854.....	12,555	198	12,912	455	9,501
	331,700	41,758	266,894	491,478	272,111
Deduct stock at all the ports, January 1, 1857.....	13,770	46,669	4,000	16,819
Total Consumption of Foreign	317,930	41,758	220,225	487,478	255,292
Weighing.....					255,292 tons.
Consumption of Foreign in 1855.....					192,607 "
Increase in 1856.....					62,685 tons.
Consumption of Foreign in 1856, as above.....					255,292 "
Add crop of 1855-'56 of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, &c., the bulk of which came to market in 1856, and assuming the stock 1st of January, each year to be equal.....					123,468 "
Would make the total consumption in the United States of Cane Sugar in 1856.....					378,760 tons.
Total consumption of Domestic and Foreign in 1855.....					377,752 "
Increase in 1856.....					1,008 tons.

THE ILLS THAT SLAVERY FREES US FROM.

In reading the following, which we take from an able report on the Sanitary Police of Cities, sent to us by the author, Dr. Newman, of Buffalo, New York, we profoundly wonder at the blindness which finds in Southern slavery a "painted devil."

"Oh, judgment, thou hast fled to brutish beasts,
And men have lost their reason!"

It seems that a Committee was sent by the Legislature of New York to look into the condition of the lower and working classes of the city. They report, April 4, 1856, that in twenty-two districts 1,200 tenement houses are occupied by *ten families each*, in some by *seventy families*, others one hundred, and in one, in particular, *one hundred and forty-six families, or more than an average of one family and a half to each room!* But let the Committee speak:

"In the houses visited by your Committee, sights were presented to them alike startling and painful to behold. *In many, whites and blacks were living indiscriminately together; negro men with white women, and white men with negro women.* Young faces, haggard with want and sickness, and bearing that peculiar look of premature old age imparted by early sin, gazed at them from every corner; misery and vice in their most repulsive features met them at every step. Scarcely an apartment was free from sickness and disease, and the blighting curse of drunkenness had fallen upon almost every family. Here and there might be found, it is true, some attempt at cleanliness, some display of a love of home, some evidences of industry and sobriety, with their natural accompaniments, cheerfulness and good health. But these, your Committee found, were in most instances families that had not long been inhabitants of the neighborhoods in which they lived. The demoralization and ruin apparent all around had not had time to do their work on them. It is to be feared that too soon the miasmal air will creep into their systems, undermining the sturdy constitution, and prostrating its victims on a bed of sickness. Health failing them, want will follow; and then must come crowding rapidly upon them, neglect of home, neglect of children, uncleanness, drunkenness, and crime. This is no fancy sketch, no picture of the imagination. It is a stern reality, enacted every day in the midst of luxury and wealth, the natural and fearful result of the rapacity of landlords in an overcrowded city, unrestrained by conscience, and wholly unchecked by legislation.

In these buildings, thus crowded with human beings, there is, with scarcely an exception, but one narrow stairway; and egress to the multitude inside, in case of fire, is an impossibility. Common humanity demands some law against this evil.

Every underground cellar in these tenement buildings, that is not absolutely flooded by water and filth, is made a lodging

room for one or more wretched families. All these are destitute of any species of ventilation; in most of them the floors are thick with putrid mud, and the pipes and sinks communicating with them from upper apartments give out their offensive and deadly gas, and pollute the air of the whole neighborhood.

SMOOTHING THE PATHWAY THROUGH THE WILDERNESS.

Senator Rusk, of Texas, lately elected President of the Senate, has carried through an appropriation for boring Artesian wells, in that portion of the wilderness, which meets us in our southern progress to the Pacific, and presents sterile and arid plains almost impassible to man. This is but one of the many acts of that eminent and practical statesman, for which our country shall long hold him in honor. Perhaps to him, as much as any other man living, will we owe the success of the Pacific Railroad when it comes, as come it will, without violating, as speculators would have it, one single principle of the Constitution. To his efforts in large part, we owe it, that Congress has authorized already the Postmaster General, to contract for transporting weekly overland mails to the Pacific.

The following extract is from a letter of Capt. John Pope, of the Army, to General Rusk, upon this subject:

"Of the *one hundred thousand square miles* of land included in the region of country in question, but little except the limited strip along the immediate valley of the Rio Grande, has been occupied, and nearly the whole of this immense region seems doomed, by the peculiarity of its geological structure, to solitude and unproductiveness. Independent of the absolute loss of so large a quantity of land, this solitary and now uninhabited region interposes a serious and nearly impracticable barrier to lines of communication with our possessions in New Mexico and on the Pacific. It seems, indeed, deplorable that so great an extent of territory every where covered with grass, nutritious during the whole year, eminently adapted from its climate for the raising, at no expense, of enormous quantities of stock, possessing a fertile soil, and prolific in precious metals should, from the mere absence of one element, be abandoned to this solitary and worse than useless condition, and it would appear that the Government would gladly adopt any reasonable means to develop and make use of supplies which nature has so abundantly provided. From examinations of this country for five successive years, and from two years of actual and constant study of the country, and practical experience in it, I am entirely convinced that by means of Artesian wells the whole of this region can be reclaimed, and value given to lands now worthless, which, in view of their immense extent, would repay a thousand fold any expenditure of the Government in fully exhibiting this fact. I by no means propose that the United States should undertake to reclaim any considerable portion of this region by boring Artesian wells, but simply that they should sink several of these wells, in different parts of this region, selecting as nearly as possible lines of military roads, merely for the purpose of conclusively proving the fact that water sufficient for irrigation, and for all purposes connected with settlements can be supplied by Artesian wells. There are hundreds of persons now in New Mexico and Texas who only await the certainty of not expending their means without results to reclaim and settle large claims of their own, lying in this region, and a successful experiment by the Government will at once give the confidence alone necessary for the object. I will simply state the results reported to the War Department:

"1st. That abundant reservoirs of pure palatable water underlie the whole of the 'Llano Estacado.'

2d. "That they are easily accessible by boring. And,

3d. That, at a small expenditure of time and money, they can be made abundantly to overflow the surface."

RED RIVER RAILROAD.

An address to the citizens of New Orleans in behalf of a railroad from the Mississippi to the Ouachita and Red rivers, and thence westward, is before us. We make a short extract:

"This Road has its eastern terminus on the Mississippi river at a point at all times accessible to steamboats of the largest class; it runs thence a distance of one hundred and sixty miles west to Red river, which is navigable from the head of the raft to Preston, in Texas, a distance of six hundred miles, for eight months in the year.

"To Fulton, the western terminus, the products of the upper country can easily be brought and transported from that place over this road to its eastern terminus, on the Mississippi river, and thence down that stream to this city.

"It is true this country is now only in the bud of development, yet at this time from the Mississippi river westward, there is annually produced seventy-five thousand bales of cotton, a half million bushels of surplus wheat, and an almost indefinite amount of beef cattle. Now, all that is wanting to give to New Orleans the monopoly of this trade is merely the superstructure of a railroad one hundred and sixty miles in length, connecting the two most important rivers in this country. It may be proper in this connection to state, that from the Mississippi to the Ouachita, a distance of one hundred miles, the grading and trestle work will be completed by June next, and paid for out of the call now due on stock, leaving in the hands of the Company ample means to complete the grading of the road to Red river, and perhaps to iron and equip the first twenty-three miles, being the distance through the Mississippi swamp."

THE VALUE OF SLAVE PROPERTY.

In proportion with the assaults of free labor, has risen and rises the value and influence of the products of the slave, and of consequence of the slave himself. We take the following statistics from a Texas paper in regard to a sale at Marshal Court House. The terms were one and two years, with ten per cent. interest.

Appraised. Sold for.				Appraised. Sold for.			
Levin, 22 years old	\$1200	\$1765		Flora, 6 years old	\$500	\$695	
Mose, 31 " "	1100	1560		Adeline, 20 years, and			
Matt, 30 " "	1100	1300		2 children; one three,			
Ike, 50 " "	600	1035		and the other 4 years,	1500	2505	
West, 27 " "	1100	1800		Silla, 30, and child, 3			
Maryland, 25 " "	1200	1565		years,	1135	1610	
Eli, 22 " "	1200	1890		Sarah, 9 years old	600	890	
Hutt, 20 " "	1100	1775		Dick, 7 " "	500	650	
Clarissa, 30 years, and				Sam, 3 " "	200	450	
child 4 years,	1150	1410		Phoebe, 10 " "	500	655	
Caroline, 11 years old	800	1100		Ben, 6 " "	350	405	
Frank, 9 " "	600	805		Buffalo, " "	200	300	
Little Alliek, 7 " "	500	810		Mary, 50 " "	400	575	
Lueinda 35 y'rs, and child				Ellick, 23 " "	1200	1910	
2 years,	930	1325					
Catharine, 10 years old	705	700					
					\$20,405	\$29,490	

THE STEAM FERRY LINE TO EUROPE FROM THE CHESAPEAKE.

In explanation of some of the points indicated in the address of Mr. Mann to the people of the South, on this subject, published in the October number of the Review, we have received the following. Col. Mann, we learn, is still actively engaged in maturing his plans and arranging his company.

The question will be asked, how are nine hundred and ten thousand tons of freight to be obtained in a twelve-month in the Chesapeake bay intended for European markets? Much more doubtfully was the inquiry made ten years ago by incredulous minds, where is the traffic to come from which is to give employment to the Baltimore and Ohio railroad? But during 1856, 955,000 barrels of flour alone were conveyed to tide-water upon it! This result ought to be a sufficient answer to those whose visions are not sufficiently clear to perceive where nine hundred and ten thousand tons of freight are to proceed from to concentrate in the Chesapeake, where conveyance to a foreign market at a lower rate than can be conceived of elsewhere, and vastly more expeditious, presents itself every week. By next autumn the railroad communication will be completed direct from the Chesapeake to Memphis and to Montgomery, thus offering to the interior of the South the benefit of the steamers. From this source and through the other railroads already in operation, together with the facilities afforded by rivers and canals, more than an abundance of freight for the four steamers will be looking for cheap and speedy transportation, ready to avail of them long before they can be built.

But, independently of this traffic, immense as it is to become, there is another region of the Union, ever mindful of its interests, looking with anxious solicitude to the Chesapeake as an outlet for its products. The projected Steam Ferry Line has aroused it to renewed action. Louisville wants to be prepared to avail of it at the earliest moment after it commences to operate. She has just made a large contribution to the Lexington and Big Sandy railway, in order to get the most expeditious and reliable conveyance to Europe. Cincinnati, and even Chicago, are anxiously looking in the same direction, for they are two hundred miles nearer than to New York with uninterrupted conveyance. Somewhere, not far from the Virginia and Kentucky line, their traffic will cross the Ohio river to be conveyed from thence to the Covington and Central railroads to the Chesapeake. As soon as this communication is complete—and we trust Virginia will strain every nerve to hasten it—the three cities named will alone furnish ample freight for the four ocean mammoths, whose benign mission it will be to

make the cultivator of the soil rejoice more than ever in his noble calling. This ligament of iron will bind Ohio and Illinois and Indiana inseparably to the South, to say nothing of Pennsylvania, whose great central artery flows in the direction in which her interests lie.

But by the time the leviathans can be constructed the Chesapeake will be within six or seven days of the Pacific by another route. There will, perhaps, within five years, be a daily communication from Richmond to Ventose via the Gulf of Mexico and the isthmus of Tehuantepec. A carriage road across the isthmus over which the travel will be performed in twenty hours is said to be rapidly advancing towards completion, and preparations are being made for the commencement of a railway to be speedily laid down between its terminal points. It is thus not unlikely, in view of the sub-marine telegraph line across the Atlantic, whose proprietors confidently expect will be in operation next summer, that intelligence can be conveyed from Europe to the Pacific, in correspondence with steamers on the Gulf, in four day's time, if not less. In this case it is more than probable that European sailing ships in the Australia, East India, or China trade, will generally touch at Ventose to receive and despatch messages to their owners; and this would be succeeded, in the event of such a communication between the two hemispheres as the Steam Ferry Line, by the transmission of their cargoes by the isthmus, the gulf and southern railroads to the Chesapeake. That such would be the interest of European merchants is distinctly foreshadowed by the fact that much of the traffic from the lower Pacific South American coast, which formerly went around Cape Horn, avails itself of the Panama railroad for expedition to its destination.

So certain is the projector of the Steam Ferry Line of the eventual diversion of the traffic and mail carrying between Great Britain and her eastern possessions, across the country between the Chesapeake and the Gulf, by means of his contemplated enterprise, that he would prefer to receive the existing rates on mail matter, for conveying it, to any subsidy which Congress is bestowing for ocean postal services. To give an idea of what the traffic between the mother country and Australia alone is, and what, *per consequence*, the mail communication must necessarily become, we extract the following from a late Liverpool journal:

"Victoria, the junior of the Australian colonies, has, within the short space of not much more than ten years, attained a commercial position much more significant than the majority of the continental States of Europe. Her gold fields, to all appearance, are inexhaustible; yet she does not rely upon them,

valuable though they be. Her trade and commerce have grown and are growing with a rapidity that borders on the marvellous. Melbourne bay is studded with ships and steamers of every clime. From the North to the South, and from the East to the West, Christians, Jews, Turks, and infidels alike swarm to this wonderful quarter of the British possessions. Hence it is that during last year the total exports from Victoria amounted in value to £11,775,000, and of this large amount the United Kingdom received £10,276,000, and our other colonies £1,372,000. The value of the gold exported was £8,255,000; the whole of which, with the exception of £320,000 shipped to other British colonies, was received in this country. On the other hand, Victoria received, in exchange for her gold and other produce, articles from this country to the value of £10,942,000, and from our British colonies £4,467,000; the total value of her imports being £17,659,000. The colony of New South Wales, the elder of the group, sent us its produce to the value of £2,307,000, and to other colonies £1,624,000. The entire exports of the colony, including those to foreign countries, amounted to £4,030,000, of which sum £773,000 was the value of the gold produced in this country. But, again, we have South Australia, which is 'rich' in its own peculiar way. It cannot boast of gold or silver mines; but there is abundance of copper, and the agriculture and pasturage of the colony had proved, and is still proving, it to be a most desirable resort for industrious and steady emigrants. As a proof of the growing importance of South Australia, we may mention that last year that colony was a customer to the manufacturers and producers of this country of goods to the value of £1,628,000, and from our colonies of £392,000; while the South Australians sent us in return their raw material to the value of £611,000, and to British colonies, principally Victoria, they exported produce of the value of £708,000. Tasmania has been long and favorably known as desirable resort for the British emigrant. Gold has lately been discovered there, and it bids fair to rival some of the more opulent and extensive commercial colonies of the group. Every day adds some new fact to demonstrate that before a century passes this quarter of the world will stand pre-eminent in all that contributes to the greatness of a people. Churches, colleges, and schools are reared with rapidity; cities are beautified, squares and streets laid out, and public buildings erected with rapidity and beauty that would shame the mother country. Internal improvements are going on rapidly. Railways will soon form a net-work over each of the colonies. The electric wire is being laid down from colony to colony. In a word, everything that can render this portion of God's creation far-famed, a

pleasant and prosperous abode for the British emigrant, a model for agricultural, mining, and commercial industry, has been put in operation. To speak of the beauty of the Australian landscape, to delineate the brilliant plumage of its feathered tribe, the resources and the capabilities of all the colonies, would be a task of a herculean character. Suffice it to say, they are unequalled as a whole in any other part of the globe."

Great Britain, about six months ago, closed a contract with a company to carry the mails from Southampton, via the isthmus of Suez, to Melbourne, in about fifty days. This time can be shortened by the way of Milford, the Chesapeake, and Tehuantepec, in all likelihood, from fifteen to twenty days.

WILL CHARLESTON COMMAND THE TRADE OF THE WEST?

The spirit evinced by the citizens of Charleston bespeak for that city a distinguished commercial future. Her railroad to Memphis will be a great feeder in that direction, and what is called the Blue Ridge Road will realize all of her early dreams from the Northwest.

We are indebted to Henry Gourdin, Esq., and also to Walter Gwynn, engineer of the company, for the report of the Blue Ridge Road for 1856. It is a business-like and most valuable document, from which we are pleased to make an extract. Fifty-two miles of the road are in South Carolina, sixteen miles in Georgia, seventy-three miles in North Carolina, and fifty-three miles in Tennessee.

The length of the Blue Ridge Railroad is 195 miles, 759 feet; at Knoxville it unites with the East Tennessee and Georgia, the East Tennessee and Virginia, and the Knoxville and Kentucky Railroads. The last mentioned road connects with the Danville and Lexington, and Lexington and Covington Railroads, thus forming a line to Cincinnati, from which there are arms thrown off to the Ohio, at Louisville and Cairo, and to New Madrid, on the Mississippi. Assuming Cincinnati as the starting point, as in fact it is, of all the railroads between the Ohio and Atlantic border, the distance to Charleston will be about the same as to Richmond, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, with the advantage on the side of Charleston of an hour's sail to the ocean, against probably several days sail, or the expense of a steam tug to an *offing* from either place. To New York the distance in favor of Charleston is 200 miles, and to Norfolk 80 miles.

From the brief description given of the character of the route proposed for the railroad, and the hasty parallel I have drawn, it must be apparent to all, that, by means of such moderate grades, low summit, equal curvature and distance, and

small extent of mountain region, it might not only challenge a comparison with, but might justly claim pre-eminence over all other lines of railroad communications, whether executed or projected, between the eastern and western waters.

The object, especially aimed at by this improvement, is to put Charleston in direct communication with the Ohio river, to draw the vast trade by the way-side, now diverted to points less congenial, and to enable her, by a line possessing superior advantages, not only to grasp the rich stores south of the Ohio, but to compete for the trade north of the Ohio to the lakes, and west of the Mississippi and the Missouri.

That she will be enabled to do so successfully, I entertain no doubt; for the trade south of the Ohio river, and extending west on a *parallel* with the mouth of the Ohio, across the Mississippi river, even to the confines of civilization, from its geographical position must come to Charleston, and may be looked to with confidence, both as a profit to the road, and an increase of the trade of the city. At Cincinnati, with railroad distance about the same to Richmond, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, with the advantages of her greater proximity to the ocean, Charleston may boldly enter into competition, with a confidence of participating in a full share of the one hundred and twenty millions of trade, import and export, which centres there. On the north of the Ohio, taking Indianapolis as a centre, and the distance to Charleston as a radius, it will be found by sweeping the circle around the coast, that Charleston maintains her equality of distance with Richmond, Norfolk, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, reckoning to the Atlantic border, and maintains her advantage of railroad distance over New York. Surely, then, she may count on the extension of her trade to the north of the Ohio river, from Louisville, as far as Lake Michigan, to the east, reckoning from Indianapolis, as far as the State of Ohio, and to the west and northwest, to an indefinite extent, embracing the upper waters of the Missouri. But for those who may not be disposed to take so wide a range—though I consider it within legitimate bounds—I would submit that the “Blue Ridge Railroad,” as the connecting link to this vast chain of railway communication, now in progress in the northwest, and destined ultimately to reach the Pacific, will, at least, be to Charleston and South Carolina what the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad is to Baltimore and Maryland, the Pennsylvania Central Railroad to Philadelphia and Pennsylvania, and the New York and Erie Railroad to the State and City of New York—a copious source of income—a vast influx of trade, and an immense expansion of commerce.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN LOUISIANA.

The Report for 1856, by Samuel Bard, the State Superintendent, is before us. It is our wish to publish reports upon this subject from all of the States. We regret that Mr. Bard has not condensed the very full statistics of the several parishes into some general tables. This is a defect. We also regret to hear him speaking about phonetic teaching in our schools. This is one of the isms so fashionable at the North, and had better be left there. The English language, as it is, is well enough, and our children may learn it as their fathers did. The trouble is to have them taught it even that way. What Mr. Bard says about Southern school books is exactly our doctrine. The Report is in many respects valuable. As to educating free negroes we agree in its impolicy. It makes them ten-fold more worthless than they otherwise are, to go no further. In the case of the mulatto it is sometimes otherwise in Louisiana. That class is better there than can be found in the other States. We extract from the Report:

"In forty parishes there have been taught the past year 741 schools, on an average of six months; the whole number of children in attendance was 7,949; the compensation to teachers for the same amounted to \$166,528 47. And had all the Treasurers been able to make full reports, the showing would have been greater, for while the compensation to teachers has always been stated, it often happens that the number of scholars, or the time the schools were taught, is not mentioned.

"We have now in our State several Seminaries, Academies, and Colleges, which rank high, of which we might justly be proud, and a proper appreciation of which would render it entirely unnecessary for the sons and daughters of Louisiana to seek other climes and institutions, in order to obtain an education. The State should foster, with generous liberality, those under her immediate guardianship."

EDITORIAL NOTES AND BOOK NOTICES.

—In the January, 1857, number of the Review we took occasion to dissent from the conclusions of an article furnished for our pages by W. S. Grayson, of Mississippi. The author has replied to us more at length than space will admit us to occupy with the matter at this time. He says that our position drives us to two things, and enters into the proof of it, to wit: the re-

opening of the slave trade and the closing of the colonization movement. We admit, without printing it, the argument in admitting the charge. If it pleases, let us be so understood. We have not the slightest objection if the position drives us to that. Mr. Grayson says:

Sir: At page 75 of the January, 1857, issue of the Review, I hold this language:

"I do not regard slavery as intrinsically a blessing. I should not, therefore, desire to see the white citizens of the United States reduced to it. If slavery were a blessing, then, all good men would be compelled to desire it for themselves and for their children, and for all men. I regard slavery as a moral evil, precisely as I regard all civil laws as evils."

To these observations you append the following note:

"We differ entirely from the writer. Slavery is intrinsically a blessing to the African, because it is the only condition in which his moral and physical nature can be developed, as all experience has shown. It therefore does not touch the question to speak of enslaving white citizens of the United States, or of desiring slavery for all good men, ourselves, and our children, &c., included, and the writer changes the issue when he does it."

In these observations, permit me respectfully to say, that I think you are not only in error of principle, but plainly inconsistent in the opinion entertained. Let us inquire into it.

In the first place, believing as you do, that slavery is an *intrinsic* blessing to the African, you cannot consistently escape from the advocacy of the slave trade and its continuance until *every* African enjoys this intrinsic good. To this, philanthropy would bind you.

Secondly. Believing as you do with respect to slavery as applied to Africans, you cannot but consistently oppose their colonization in any state or condition other than slavery upon the soil of their native land. If slavery in America be intrinsically a blessing, slavery of itself must be intrinsically a blessing to the African.

—We have received a letter from a mechanic at Wharton, Texas, on the subject of the South, which is interesting but not exactly adapted for publication. An extract from it, however, will show how the working classes of the South feel and think about its society:

"I am a mechanic, and a poor one; I do not own a slave, but have worked day by day, side by side with the slave for the last twenty years. We met at our common labor in the working hours,

and parted at the termination of each division of the hours of work, he to his board and bed, and I to the house of the planter, where I have always been received as an equal, and do not recollect that I ever left without receiving a hearty invitation to come again and welcome. If I have ever received a slight or any mistreatment, because I was a mechanic, I have not the recollection of it.

"There are but two classes in the South, the white and black. The line is broad and plainly marked between them. We have no artificial distinctions; the only distinction is that which is awarded to merit and talent, and for that I would not like to see the present system changed. The mechanic is better paid and treated here than any where else in the world."

—The N. Y. Day-Book is in all respects a very valuable paper, continues to battle bravely and manfully for the rights of the South, and deserves our heartiest support and encouragement. In a late number the Editor says, (see below) and in what he says, we agree with him, though we cannot vouch for the soundness of all of our *advertisers* on the slavery question, having found it impracticable at this distance to obtain the facts. We are compelled to proceed upon the principle of Southern journals generally, and allow our readers to ascertain for themselves. The Day-Book has the opportunity of serving the South in a way that we cannot. We rejoice, that it will do so.

"We wish it distinctly understood, that we do not ask the subscription nor advertising of any Abolitionist here or elsewhere, and whilst we persecute no man nor set of men, we claim it as our right to denounce both the sentiments and practices of those merchants who, while reaping a rich reward from their business connection with southern merchants, are using the fruits of that trade to rob the southerners of their property.

"We are in daily receipt of letters asking us to point out to our southern readers these individual merchants, and many of our subscribers claim that they have as much right to information re-

specting the sentiments of the merchants with whom they do business as to know the quality and price of merchandize.

"Now, it must be plain to every man that the DAY-BOOK cannot give a list of all the abolition merchants in town, if it were so disposed, but we can, by restricting our advertisements to such as agree with us in sentiment, give our southern readers a tolerably correct idea of who it is safe for them to deal with, and we therefore make this announcement that we not only do not ask, but hereafter shall refuse the advertisements of those who use the profits of their trade to war upon the South."

—The Catalogue of *Wofford College*, South Carolina, is before us. This is a prosperous institution, located at Spartanburg, South Carolina, under the auspices of the Methodist Church. The senior class numbers six students, the junior fourteen, the sophomore nineteen, and the freshmen twenty-one. The fees are very moderate.

—The next meeting of the *Southern Convention* will be held at Knoxville, Tennessee, the 10th day of August. The season will be propitious for the largest attendance, and we know that the people of Knoxville will be in advance with every arrangement. It will be difficult for any city to surpass our friends at Savannah. Delegates will not soon forget such gentlemen as Mr. Anderson, Dr. Scriven, Mr. Green, Dr. Arnold, etc., etc. We ought to have mentioned before how rich a treat Mr. Smets opened to us in his unique and invaluable collection of parchments and books, and Mr. Teft, in his extraordinary collection of Autographs. These gentlemen have occupied half a lifetime in the search after every thing that was curious in such departments, and it is wonderful with what success. Every stranger is welcome to their halls, and scarcely any one would be willing to visit Savannah without enjoying the privilege.

—Whilst upon the Convention it may be as well to say, that its proceedings are now published in pamphlet form, and can be had free from the office of the Review. They will be sent to such delegates whose names are recorded. The list of delegates is very imperfect, but no better could be had. In the pamphlet edition, republished for the Review, some errors are corrected, to wit: Mr. Fouché, of Georgia,

is given the credit of the resolutions on free trade, instead of Col. Howard, and in these resolutions the word *imports* is substituted in several places for *importe*.

—Every Southern reader of the Review will, we are sure, read with care the paper of Mr. Henry, of Mobile, in the present number, on "*Revolution in the Cotton Industry of the South*." Certainly it opens a field for enormously increased wealth, and our planters should at once examine the subject fully. What is proposed has always been a desideratum, and several Southern Conventions have suggested that State premiums should be given to the first successful inventor. If Mr. Henry can accomplish what he claims, or even a tithe of it, he will be the greatest benefactor the South has ever had. He is already in negotiation with many planters. The cost of machinery is moderate:

For a planter making	45 bales	\$1,500
" " "	100 "	2,500
" " "	200 "	4,500
" " "	300 "	6,000
" " "	400 "	12,000
" " "	1,500 "	30,000

Mr. Henry is a merchant of Mobile, of long standing and credit, and has given great attention to the subject of Cotton. His proposals with reference to his patent are very liberal. He contemplates to devote himself to all the details of his improvement in all of its branches, and is willing to contract on this basis, with planters: to receive from them or their factors, on the first of January of each year, for the first five years, one-fourth of the excess the yarns bring over the price of cotton. He, on his part, disposes of the privilege to them to spin a specific quantity per annum; and if the planter increases his planting interest, by purchase or otherwise, for his new interest a new contract for the addition to be made.

—See the advertisement in our pages of Walker & Wilkie, Charleston, S. C., who are the agents for the supply of printing, writing, and wrapping paper of the *South Carolina Paper Manufacturing Company*. We have examined the stock of these parties, and have purchased from them, and believe that they can supply orders as cheap as any northern factory. Let the South sustain this enterprise. Walker & Wilkie also supply printers' material, presses, inks, etc., etc.

—We are indebted to Crosby, Nichols & Co., Boston, for a copy of the *American Almanac* for 1857. This standard national work has now reached its 28th annual issue, and ought to be found in every intelligent family.

—P. Griffes, Philadelphia, sends us a series of educational works, by James Brown, but we have not had an opportunity of looking into them. They are the *First Book of the Rational System of Grammar*; the *Second Book of the same*; the *Grammatical Reader*, a class book of criticism, or the theory of English Grammar; the *Third Book of the Rational System of English Grammar*.

—Phillips, Sampson & Co., Boston, place us under deep obligations, by furnishing a copy, in three very handsomely issued octavo volumes, of their late edition of the *History of the Reign*

of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, by Wm. Robertson, D. D., with an account of the Emperor's life after his abdication, by Wm. H. Prescott. Large as is the reputation of Robertson he is happy in having such an Editor. The materials for the monastic life of the Emperor were not within his reach, having been among the archives of Simancas, then closed to the inspection of native or foreigner. Only within a few years has the scholar been permitted to enter its dusty recesses, and draw thence materials to illustrate the national history, which is particularly rich in materials for the illustration of Charles the Fifth's life after his abdication. These materials show conclusively, that the monarch instead of remaining dead to the world in his retreat, took not merely an interest, but a decided part in the management of affairs.

WHAT IS SAID OF THE REVIEW.

CONDENSED CORRESPONDENCE FOR MARCH.

From Abbeville, South Carolina: The publication of this volume I regard as of the first importance to the future welfare of the South. I think every man of reflection must now see that the institutions of the South are in a precarious condition, and that all the moral and intellectual powers of the Southern mind will be required to save ourselves from destruction.

In looking over the volume you sent me, I see that you have published Harper's "Memoirs on Negro slavery." On running my eyes over this article, I have been transported in imagination back to my youthful days, in 1828, when I happened to be present at an interview between the late John C. Calhoun and Chancellor Harper. The main topic then, was nullification, the tariff, &c.; but I well remember, in the course of their conversation, that the future of the question of slavery was fully discussed; both of these good and great men then fully balanced the present condition of affairs, and agreed that the great error of the South was in not meeting the discussion of the slavery question on *fundamental principles*. They both deplored the disposition of the South to *palliate* and *excuse* the institution of slavery, rather than to *defend* it on the principle of *right*. I doubt not that this conversation led to the Memoir.

From Tuscaloosa, Alabama: I have enclosed you twenty dollars, which please place to my credit, and if it were necessary to sustain a work so important to the South, at this trying juncture, you should have double the amount. I wish it was in the hands of every citizen, North and South; and that they of the North could be induced to read it, with an honest intention of comparing arguments, and by that method arrive at the facts in controversy by the two great sections; we feel assured they would learn a lesson that would teach them that their true interest would be to attend to their own business, and let the South alone; and this course, too, would not only preserve the union of States, but secure within it its best element of safety—love for its existence.

From Columbus, Georgia: I prize no less the ability than the zeal with which you promote, at once, the literature and the political rights of our much loved section of the Union through the columns of your magazine. It is truly gratifying and refreshing, in view of the increasing hostility of the North to our domestic institutions, and the supine indifference if not actual hostility of persons at home, to find in your Review a friend who fights with good grace and hits hard licks. I believe that your spirits will not flag, and that your sinews are yet undeveloped.